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ABSTRACT

The first of a two volume series designed for teachers of students with emotional disabilities, this guide provides information on practical classroom techniques. The following topics are examined through article reprints, checklists, and discussion overviews (sample subtopics in parentheses): behavior management (management plans, intervention strategies/group dynamics, professional development, discipline, logical consequences); affective techniques (self concept improvement, values, self awareness, decisionmaking); therapeutic approaches (programmatic approaches, interactive techniques, adjunctive therapies, self change techniques); integration of the behavior disordered student (teaching adaptations, reintegration); and alternative curricula (the Engineered Classroom, cross age tutoring, an eclectic approach, and instructional modifications). (CL)

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RESOURCE GUIDE
FOR
EMOTIONAL DISABILITIES
VOLUME I

1983

Keystone Area Education Agency
Division of Special Education

EC162170

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FORWARD

The Resource Guide for Emotional Disbilities is designed to provide a variety of informational and hands-on materials to assist teachers in their work with emotionally disabled students. The committee who compiled the various articles, formats and lists view the handbook as only a small portion of the many resources available. The items selected attempt to provide teachers with information which may be applicable to their daily work. Formats are given as samples and may be adapted to suit individual needs.

The Keystone Area Eduation Agency has consultants in the Division of Special Education who may be contacted directly by teachers and will help any teacher further investigate resources discussed in this Guide.

Special appreciation is extended to Mr. Carl Smith, ED Consultant for the Iowa Department of Insturction, for his assistance in the early stages of this project and to Gerrie Burger for the typing of the Guide. The committee also thanks those teachers and consultants from AEA #1 and across the state of Iowa for their contributions and suggestions.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

RESOURCES

GLOSSARY OF TERMS FOR BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT

MISBEHAVIOR

- Causes of Misbehavior
- Goals of Misbehavior

MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

- Summary of Management Techniques

MANAGEMENT PLAN DEVELOPMENT

- Developing A Management Plan

INTERVENTION STRATEGIES/GROUP DYNAMICS

- Major Sources of Management Problems
- Behavior Problems

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

- Classroom Management Strategies

INTERVENTION STRATEGIES

- Making Clear Rules

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

- Checklist

INTERVENTION STRATEGIES

- Interventions Successfully Used With Emotionally Disturbed and Behavior Problem Children

DISCIPLINE

- Discipline In The Classroom

MANAGING BEHAVIOR

- Key Issues and Questions for Managing Behaviors

LOGICAL CONSEQUENCES

- Principals of Logical Consequences in a Democratic Setting
- The Concept of Logical Consequences
- Examples of Logical Consequences
- Contracting
- Self-Management
- Fighting

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

BUS BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT

- Bus Behavior Management System

SELF-MANAGEMENT

- Self-Management Plan

MANAGING BEHAVIOR

- Mediation Essays

CONFRONTATION MANAGEMENT

- Confrontation - Management

REINFORCEMENT

- Lists providing suggestions for reinforcement techniques which are effective with students
- Reinforcement Techniques For Students
- Reinforcement Survey

BEHAVIOR CHARTING

- Behavior Orientation Program

MONITORING ACADEMIC WORK

- Daily Assignments

CONTINGENCY CONTRACTING

- Contingency Contracting (A Form of Behavior Modification)

MANAGING DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIOR

- How Do You Handle Students Who Blow Up At The Least Provocation?

DISCIPLINE TECHNIQUES

- Response Costs

TIME-OUT

- Introductory Statement
- Issues to Consider in the Use of Physical Restraint and Time-Out Procedures
- State of Indiana Draft Guidelines for Seclusion Time-Out
- Grant Wood Area Education Agency Position on Time-Out
- The Time-Out Procedure - A Clarification
- Time Out in the Classroom: Implications for Special Education
- Trends in Programming for Emotionally Disabled and Chronically Disruptive Pupils
- Systematic Exclusion

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

PHYSICAL RESTRAINT IN THE CLASSROOM

- Physical Restraint - Introductory Statement
- Legal Issues and Implications of Physical Control
- Physical Control
- Physical Restraint in the Classroom: Comments and Suggestions
- Procedures for Using Physical Management
- Teaching Control Strategies
- Setting the Scene to Avoid Problems
- Five Good Reasons

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McIntire, Roger W. For Love of Children - Behavioral Psychology for Parents. Del Mar, California: Communications Research Machines Inc., 1970.

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Peter, Laurence J. Individual Instruction - Prescriptive Teaching System. New York: McGraw Hill, 1972.

Poteet, James A. Behavior Modification - A Practical Guide for Teachers. Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing, 1973.

Sheppard, William C. Teaching Social Behavior to Young Children. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1973.

Resources

The following is a list of materials available through the Curriculum Laboratory, Special Education Division, Educational Services/Media Services.

Allyn & Bacon, Inc.
- The Emotionally Disturbed Child in the Classroom
- Specialized Education in Today's Secondary Schools
- Intervention Strategies for Specialized Secondary Education
- Children with Learning and Behavior Problems: A Behavior Management Approach
- The Acting Out Child: Coping With Classroom Disruption

Beckley-Cardy
- Behavioral Decisions
- Survival Kit for Teachers
- Help Children Manage Learning Behaviors

Behavioral Products
- Praise-Criticism Ratio
- Behavior Contracting System

C.A.D.R.E. Center and P.A.C.E. Program
- 1 Training Reference - Changing Behavior, 1978

Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc.
- Classroom Discipline: An Idea Handbook for Elementary Teachers
- Classroom Activities for Helping Hyperactive Children
- Classroom Activities for Modifying Misbehavior in Children
- Classroom Activities for Motivating Underachieving Children

Center for Teacher Education
- PETSS Project
- 2 Training References - Observation: Development of Observation Skills
- 2 Training References - Observation: Analysis and Self-Analysis, Phase I
- 2 Training References - Observation: Analysis and Self-Analysis, Phase II
- 3 Training References - Creating a Community of Learners: An Introduction To Classroom Management
- 2 Training References - Helping Pupils To Meet Classroom Expectations

Dunn and Dunn
- Practical Approaches to Individualized Instruction: Contracts and Other Effective Teaching Strategies

Edmark Associates
- Behavioral Analysis Forms for Clincial Intervention
- Behavioral Modification for the Classroom Teacher
- How to Use Contingency Contracting in the Classroom
- Writing Behavioral Contracts
- Structured Teaching
- Pocketful of Praises, Beat the Hassle, Glue Him Down
- Help! These Kids are Driving Me Crazy

Engelmann-Becker Corporation
- 1 Curriculum Guide - Token Reinforcement Techniques, 1974

H & H Enterprises
  A-1 Wrist Response Counter
  How to Handle Problem Behaviors in School
  How to Set Up a Token Economy
  Managing Behavior Series Parts - 1-9
  How to Use Systematic Attention and Approval
  How to Use Planned Ignoring
  How to Use Time Out
  How to Use Overcorrection
  Little People: Guidelines for Common Sense Child Rearing

Learning Handbooks
  1 Professional Reference - Resolving Classroom Conflict, 1974

Love Publishing Company
  Teaching Students with Behavior Disorders
  Motivating Reluctant Learners
  Positive Classroom Performance
  It's Positively Fun
  It's Absolutely Groovy

Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company
  1 Professional Reference - Teaching Children Self-Control, 1975

National Education Association
  1 Professional Reference - Coping with Disruptive Behavior, 1974
  1 Professional Reference - Behavior Modification, 1976
  1 Professional Reference - Code of Student Rights and Responsibilities, 1971

A Peek Publications
  1 Professional Reference - A Guide to Behavior Modification, 1972

Pergamom Press, Inc.
  1 Professional Reference - Child Behavior Modification: A Manual for Teachers, Nurses, and Parents, 1973

Research Press
  Steps to Independence
  1 Curriculum Guide - Behavior Program, 1976
  Writing Behavioral Contracts
  Modifying Classroom Behavior

SEIMC
  Managing Disruptive Behavior in the Elementary School

Southern Prairie Area Education Agency
  5 Professional References - Structured Observation System: A Record of Pupil Behavior, 1980

Special Education Curriculum Development Center
  1 Training Reference - Modifying Behavior, 1970

GLOSSARY OF TERMS FOR BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT

Apprehensive child: A child who approaches most learning tasks by being frightened of anything new, strange, or complex in nature, thus equating learning with anxiety which tends to further confuse and disorganize his thought processes.

Assertive training: Employment of basic role-playing activities which are designed to bring out more assertive behavior through practical application, perhaps in group therapy.

Aversive conditioning: Programmed events which are designed to reduce need through deprivation of reinforcement which will result in appropriate behavior due to the value of survival.

Behavior modification: A system for changing behavior based on the principles of conditioning. The term behavior modification, or "behavior mod", is usually applied either to the classroom or to a patient undergoing therapy. When desirable behavior is exhibited it is followed by a reinforcing stimulus, and when undesirable behavior is emitted it is followed either by no reinforcement (extinction) or, less commonly, by punishment. It is important when using this system that: 1) goals be defined precisely and in behavioral terms, and 2) the conditioning schedule be followed with absolute consistency.

Behavior therapy: A mid 19th century outgrowth of classical conditioning experimentation and learning theories of psychological study based on scientific data.

Behaviorism: A school of thought in psychology usually considered to have originated in the work and writings of John B. Watson. In 1913, Watson outlined the Behaviorist position in his paper "Psychology as the Behaviorist Views It." Briefly stated, Watson argued against the use of introspection in gathering psychological data. He considered observable behavior the only valid data in psychology. According to Watson, any concepts, like mind or consciousness, which have mentalistic overtones must be purged from the field of psychology. The most famous current spokesman for this tradition is Harvard University's B.F. Skinner.

Chaining: The connecting together in a sequence of two or more previously learned responses before reinforcement is presented.

Compulsion: The irresistable impulse to act, regardless of the rationality of the motivation or force of the act itself.

Conditioned reinforcement: Sometimes called secondary reinforcement, it describes the situation where a previously neutral stimulus acquires reinforcing power by being repeatedly associated with a primary reinforcer. In the classroom, conditioned reinforcers might be good grades, prizes, promotions, and generalized social approval. The use of "tokens" by behavior-modification proponents is another example of conditioned reinforcement at work in the classroom.

Conditioned response: Repeated actions of appropriate behavior in order to gain primary reinforcers.

Contingencies: Environmental conditions or factors which determine a response, be it conditioned or unconditioned.

Deviant behavior: Learned behaviors as a result of the failure of social and physical environmental factors which directly determine behavior patterns.

Impulsive children: A child who cannot focus either his auditory or visual attention long enough to learn, and who displays disruptive behavior toward direction.

Modeling: Learning can occur not only through response conditioning, but also through modeling, which is the imitation of the behavior of others. Learning by modeling can occur even when the imitative responses are not themselves being directly reinforced.

Negative children: A child who typically pouts and refuses to begin work, is antagonistic when he experiences failure or disappointment, thus often resulting in violence and general negativism.

Negative reinforcement: Any stimulus, the removal of which increases the rate of responding. If a rat is in a cage with an electrified floor grid and the electricity is turned off only after the rat presses a lever, the rate of the lever-pressing responses will tend to increase dramatically. Unlike punishment, which reduces response rates, negative reinforcement often increases response rates even more quickly than would positive reinforcement.

Passive-dependent children: A child who perceives the techer as doing the work and presents himself the helpless receiver who never takes the initiative needed for the process of learning.

Positive reinforcement: Any stimulus which, when added to the situation, increases the likelihood of the response recurring. In the classroom, positive reinforcement may be provided by primary reinforcers such as milk, cereal or candy, or by conditioned reinforcers such as gold stars, high grades, social approval.

Premack principle: A principle of behavior modification introduced by D. Premack. Premack states that behavior that occurs at a naturally high rate of frequency may be used to reinforce behavior that occurs at a naturally low rate. The establishment of high and low frequency responses must be done through careful observation.

Primary reinforcers: The use of food, praise, or other natural materials as reward for appropriate behavior.

Psychoanalytic theory: Theory of human behavior and method of treating mental illness presented by Sigmund Freud at the turn of the century. The theory attempts to give a rational explanation for man's irrational thoughts and responses. Psychoanalytic theory states: (1) that all behavior is determined by specific motives, (2) that most human motives lie at the unconscious level and, therefore, people are unaware of the reasons for most of their own behavior, (3) that neurotic symptoms result from an individual's inner conflicts, and (4) inner conflicts are a product of childhood trauma and anxiety. The therapeutic technique is based on the therapist revealing to the patient the source of his or her anxiety, and helping the patient to thus achieve insight and emotional release.

Psychotherapy: Psychological treatment of mental, emotional, and nervous disorders.

Punishment: A method for controlling behavior through the use of aversive stimulation. Punishment, though not itself causing the extinction of a conditioned response, does severely reduce the rate of responding while the punishment is in force. Punishment should not be confused with negative reinforcement.

Reinforcement: Any stimulus that increases the likelihood of a response recurring. Reinforcement should not be confused with reward, feelings of pleasure, or any other concept with subjective or mentalistic overtones. In operant conditioning the presentation of any stimulus following the emitted response can be considered a reinforcement if it results in a higher response rate.

Role reversal: A technique where an individual is allowed to reverse his role, such as interviewer becoming the interviewee, thus increasing the reality of the given situation to the individual.

Role playing: The planned process in which the person takes on the characteristics of another so as to discover appropriate behavioral alternatives to be employed in given situations.

Schedule of reinforcement: The arrangement of reinforcers on the basis of either time elapsed or number of responses emitted. Responses that are reinforced periodically, rather than each time they are emitted, tend to be conditioned more strongly and are thus more resistant to extinction. The major schedules of reinforcement are: (1) continuous, (2) fixed ration, (3) fixed interval, (4) variable ration, and (5) variable interval.

Self-fulfilling prophecy: Teachers often evaluate the performance of students, and the students then respond on the basis of a self-fulfilling prophecy. If a teacher assumes a child to be intellectually inferior, the teacher treats the child in such a way as to reinforce inferiority. The child thus begins to act in accord with the teacher's expectations.

Startle response: Teacher behavior designed for use in the autistic classroom where loud shout of "no!" are coupled with slaps on the table to gain desired behavioral attention.

Target behavior: Those behaviors which will directly benefit from treatment through modification, such as learning disabilities, physical handicaps, social and educational disturbances, mental health, and personal betterment.

Terminal behavior: Concept used by experts in the field of behavior modification. Terminal behavior defines the educational goals for the class as a whole or for individual students, and defines these goals in objective, behavioral terms. Rather than using what they consider to be vaguely stated goals, like "understanding", the behaviorists insist that the goals describe specific behaviors that will result when the objective is attained. For example, students can be said to have learned how to multiply when they can recite the multiplication table with no errors.

Token system: A system of reinforcement used by proponents of behavior modification, in which tokens of varying point values are awarded to students for fulfilling specific behavioral objectives. The tokens (conditioned reinforcers) may be different colored pieces of cardboard or poker chips which the student may earn in order to achieve some desired prize or privilege. The system is said to have two main advantages: (1) it maintains a high daily rate of desirable response, and (2) it teaches delayed gratification.

AREA: Causes of Misbehavior
SOURCE: Submitted by Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1

CAUSES OF MISBEHAVIOR

LEARNING TASKS

FRUSTRATION:	Activity too difficult; shown by excess activity, anger, or withdrawal.
BOREDOM:	Activity fails to hold interest; insufficient external motivation.
FATIGUE:	Becomes tired; needs change of activity or activity level.

THE TEACHER

LACK OF CLARITY

INSUFFICIENT INSTRUCTION

INCONSISTENCY

LACK OF EXTERNALLY SUPPLIED MOTIVATION

POOR CLASSROOM CLIMATE
- disorganized
- negative expectations

THE STUDENT

IGNORANCE:	Doesn't know what is acceptable.
MIMICRY	Imitates others.
HABIT	Established in other classes or outside of school.
DISPLACEMENT:	Problems and pressures outside of school.

OTHER CAUSES

SPECIAL EVENTS:	Holidays Athletics Assemblies Parties
THE UNEXPECTED:	Weather Fire Drills Visitors Accidents Startline News

AREA: Goals of Misbehavior
SOURCE: Adapted from Rudolph Dreikurs Logical Consequences

FOUR GOALS OF MISBEHAVIOR

	What the child's misbehavior is saying	How the child misbehaves	How the child responds to correction	How the teacher feels
ATTENTION	"I'm not oustanding, but at least I will not be overlooked if I can obtain special attention, fuss, or service."	Noisy, restless, shows off, undue pleasing, talks out, makes minor mischief, clowns, "hyperactive."	Child stops -- for a short time.	You feel annoyed. Tend to think of the child as a pest or nuisance, or at least as taking up too much time.
POWER	"I may not be a winner, but at least I can show people that they cannot defeat me, or stop me from doing what I want, or make me do what they want."	Aggressive, defies authority, insolent, refuses to do work, lies, disobeys, uses temper, tries to be the boss, pouts, cries when can't have own way.	Misbehavior continues, may even become worse when corrected.	You feel defeated, frustrated, angry. May feel that your leadership is threatened.
REVENGE	"People do not care for me, but at least I can do things to strike back when I am hurt."	Violent, brutal, sullen. Verbally and/or physically hurtful of peers or adults.	Child switches to even more violent attack when corrected, seeks to retaliate.	You feel hurt. May regard the child as mean or nasty.
INADEQUACY	"I will not be able to measure up, but at least if I do nothing people may let me alone."	Does nothing, will not try; if attempts something, gives up easily. Isolates self from others, meek, typically not recognized as a discipline problem.	No response when corrected.	You feel helpless, or feel like giving up. "What can I do with him?" May think of the child as a dreamer or stupid.

AREA: Management Techniques
SOURCE: Submitted by Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1

SUMMARY OF MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

PROBLEMS OF OMISSION		PROBLEMS OF COMMISSION	
If appropriate behavior sometimes occurs spontaneously,	reinforce behavior until it becomes more frequent.	If the problem behavior is maintained by teacher attention,	ignore the problem behavior and reinforce incompatible behavior.
If appropriate behavior occurs infrequently or not at all,	devise conditions that will elicit the behavior and then reinforce it; when the behavior occurs more frequently, fade out the prompt.	If the problem behavior is maintained by attention from peers,	get peers to ignore the problem behavior and reinforce incompatible behavior.
If the student exhibits approximations of the appropriate behavior,	shape appropriate behavior by reinforcing successive approximations.	If conditions can be arranged to prevent the problem behavior,	arrange conditions to preclude the problem behavior and reinforce incompatible behavior.
		If the problem behavior is serious, dangerous or self-reinforcing,	terminate the problem behavior, administer appropriate punishment, and reinforce incompatible behavior.

AREA: Management Plan Development
LEVEL: PIJS
SOURCE: Polly Arp, ED Supervisor, Grant Wood AEA
PROCEDURE: This section deals with designing an effective management plan that contains provision for reinforcement, logical consequences, contracting and self-management goals. An example of a good plan is on the final page of this section.

DEVELOPING A MANAGEMENT PLAN

Sample Management Plans:

1. Every 5 minutes Tommy remains in his seat during "seatwork time", he will earn a checkmark (on a note card taped on his desk). When he receives five marks he will be allowed to listen to a story on the tape recorder.

2. Each time Sue remembers to raise her hand instead of "talking out" during reading group, she will receive a token (piece of colored paper). At the end of group, every 2 tokens will earn a "coloring sheet" (she loves to color!).

3. Every 4 out of 5 days Linda is on time for class, she will be allowed to bring her favorite record to play the class for 15 minutes. (Linda comes to class late to gain attention -- this is a way to gain needed attention in a more positive way.)

Step 1.

Identify the target behavior to be changed.

A. List the various behaviors.

B. Choose the behavior that either 1) bothers you the most, or 2) the one that would be the easiest to eliminate. Keep in mind, however, that whenever we eliminate or lessen a behavior, we must teach the child an appropriate behavior to substitute for the undesired behavior.

Step 2.

Determining the Reinforcer

A. Determine the student's level - decide whether the reinforcer needs to be 1) primary (e.g. edible) or special privilege or activity, 2) how often the reinforcer must be given (e.g. every 3 minutes, 1/2 hour, hour, end of day or week).

B. Listen - Ask the student what he would like to be allowed to do.

C. Watch - Watch for activities the student seems to particularly enjoy.

A reward (reinforcer) should be:

1. Given immediately following the behavior.

2. Combined with praise.

3. Given on schedule.

4. Initially given by someone who is meaningful to the child.

CAUTION:

The reinforcer most likely will cease to be reinforcing after a time and another will need to be substituted.

AREA: Intervention Strategies/Group Dynamics
SOURCE: Submitted by Mark Cannon, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1

Major Sources of Management Problems

Behavior Problem	Group Dynamics
1. Lack of unit, e.g. boys against girls; cliques, low minority group status; argumentative, unpleasant atmosphere.	Symptomatic of a lack of positive reinforcements within the group; lack of a frame of reference for behavior from the group; inability to deal with stress.
2. Nonadherence to behavioral standards and work procedures, e.g. noisy, talkative, disorderly behavior when doing assignments or changing activities.	Reaction against norms and rules which are already established by teacher and school and over which group feels it has no control.
3. Negative reactions to individual members, e.g. ridicule of certain children, scapegoating.	Representative of group pressure to have members conform to their norms; hostility of group gains outlet in scapegoating.
4. Class approval of misbehavior, e.g. support of class clown or rebel.	Demonstrates group pressure for change by supporting an individual acting for the group; improves group integration; relieves group tension.
5. Easily distracted; prone to work stoppage and imitative behavior, e.g. upset, disorderly behavior at any interruption or change; grievances which must be settled before work proceeds.	Anxious, dependent behavior due to inability to establish predictability about school expectations and group interactions; low group identity.
6. Low morale and hostile, resistant, or aggressive reactions, e.g. stealing, work stoppages due to complaining, demands for frequent repetitions from teacher.	Representative of low group esteem, labeling as "bad" class throughout school.
7. Inability to adjust to environmental change, e.g. presence of substitute; change in routine.	Shows group unity easily threatened by change; much energy being expended on maintaining group integration.

AREA: Intervention Strategies

BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

Inappropriate behaviors are the most common problems discussed by teachers and parents. Project PEECH, Champaign, Illinois, under the direction of Merle Karnes suggests a series of procedures essential to a positive approach. Each suggestion requires that the adult exercise more control than does the preceding suggestion.

ACTION STEPS:

1. Ignoring the behavior. In some instances simply ignoring an inappropriate behavior will decrease it's occurrence. For example, if a child threw some sand the teacher might ignore for the following reasons:

    a. The situation is at fault. The sandbox is too full of sand.
    b. There are more important aspects of the situation with which to deal. A second child just got sand in his mouth and requires immediate attention.
    c. Without teacher intervention, the child demonstrates an awareness of his action. He apologizes for throwing sand and cleans it up off the floor.
    d. The teacher decides to praise another child for appropriate behavior. She tells a second child he is playing nicely in the sand and keeping it all in the sand box where it belongs.

2. Positive correction: Attempt to redirect the child by telling him what behavior is expected. For example, "If you throw the sand, it may go into someone's eyes. Let's leave it in the sand box, and I'll show you how to build a sand castle."

3. Physical direction and choice: If positive correction is ineffective, verbally direct the child -- "Put the sand in the box" -- and physically help him to follow-through. Immediately initiate a cause-and-effect situation: "The sand you throw might go in someone's eyes and that would hurt him. You must not throw sand. If you do it again you may not play with the sand anymore today."

4. Follow-through: If the child repeats the inappropriate behavior he must face the consequences. He has made his choice and the teacher must keep her word. "Get out of the sand box. You threw sand and so you may not play with it anymore." (In a classroom situation, remove the materials.)

5. Removal from the immediate situation: If the child still refuses to cooperate, remove him from the immediate situation. In the hypothetical situation, the child would be permitted to play in any area of the playground away from the sand box. (In the classroom, push the child's chair away from the table or have him move away from the group.)

6. Time-out: On occasion none of the above procedures will eliminate the undesirable behavior. This is often the case when a child has a tantrum and cannot attend to the teacher's directions. When this occurs the child should be moved to a quiet environment where he can be by himself.

This procedure is not intended to punish the child for his misbehavior; it is utilized to provide the child with an opportunity to calm himself. It is time away from an environment which stimulated conflict. (The preschooler in our example would be removed from the playground; a child in a classroom would be removed from the room.) The preschooler should be taken to a small room, free of distracting objects. There he can act out without disturbing or hurting others or damaging property.

The child should be told why he is being timed-out and how to end the session: "I cannot understand you and you can't hear me when you cry and scream. When you're quiet you may go out to the playground again." Or, "I cannot let you throw sand at another child. You must sit here until you're ready to play with the other children. Then you may go outside again." Note that, in the latter instance, the child's choices are time-out or rejoining the group. Playing in the sand is not a choice; that alternative was eliminated in step #3. The teacher must be consistent.

The child should not be physically restrained during time-out unless absolutely necessary. He should never be left unattended, locked in a room, or in complete darkness. The object of this procedure is not to frighten the child into submission anymore than it is to offer him a pleasant alternative situation. The teacher should not unnecessarily speak to or have physical contact with the child during time-out.

As indicated above, the teacher can begin with positive correction and then, if needed, utilize a more restraining technique. Or, if she has had repeated experiences with a particular child and a specific behavior problem, the teacher may begin with a procedure which has been effective in the past. Whatever the situation, the teacher must USE THE LEAST RESTRAINING PROCEDURE necessary to communicate with the child and end the inappropriate behavior(s). For example, an adult should not physically move a child through a procedure if positive correction would be equally effective. The time-out procedure is only used as a last resort. The rationale for employing minimal teacher-control should be obvious: the goal of discipline is to help the child develop self-control; excessive adult-control makes reaching that goal an impossibility.

Throughout the course of behavior change, the consequences the child meets are a result of his decisions. Discipline is indeed a positive, systematic tool for helping the child develop and exercise self-control.

*The discipline suggestions above may not work for every teacher who uses them. The teacher must exercise sound judgement, consistency, sensitivity, and flexibility in dealing with behavior problems.

AREA: Classroom Management Strategies
SOURCE: Submitted by Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Show me a smoothly run classroom and I'll show you a teacher who is a good strategist, a principal once told me. He continued, "When I say smoothly run, I don't mean that the kids are sitting ramrod straight at their desks, hands folded. That's not being either a teacher or a strategist. Smoothly run, to me, means that every child is busy at the work of learning and the teacher is . . . well, 'managing' would be a good term." I'm sure that principal would agree that strategy is even more essential in the more individually tailored classroom of today than it was some ten years ago when he made the comment.

But strategy is still the name of the game. It's basic to good management and that's what this article is all about. Following are 23 suggestions of what to do to modify student behavior.

DO:

1. If at all possible, ignore a situation you don't like. You merely reinforce undesired behavior by calling attention to it.

2. If you must take action to stop a behavior, use "signal interference". Let the child know he is doing something unacceptable by a raised eyebrow, a frown, or a shake of your head.

3. Try proximity control. Move closer to the child (good) who is misbehaving or move the child closer to you (not so good).

4. Avoid arguments and confrontations. Usually the child wins these, or nobody does.

5. To combat attention-getting behaviors, move around the classroom, acknowledging anything children have done acceptably well.

6. Use "modeling" techniques. Give attention to one child who is performing as expected so that others can hear you, and ignore those who are not doing the assignment.

7. Try behavior "shaping". Reinforce behavior that is close to desired behavior; then raise your criterion for reinforcement in slight steps as performance approaches your desired goal.

8. Tell a misbehaving child that you want him to change. Tell him exactly what you expect him to do; then tell him what will happen if he does do it rather than what will happen if he does not. Be sure to reinforce his acceptable behavior.

9. Show the child how to keep track of his own behavior (a check sheet to show frequency of occurrence of a particular behavior). This makes him responsible for his behavior, not you.

10. To increase the quantity of work done, place the student in competition with time. For example, ask, "how many problems can you do in X minutes"? Then time him. Better still, let him time himself.

11. Adjust goals for children who do not finish on time. For example, cut arithmetic problems in strips and reinforce children for completion of each strip.

12. Reduce time limits rather than increasing the amount of work. Keep the work load short and the time limit short. Children operate best with short-range goals, so make them quick and easy to attain. Reinforce as soon as possible, certainly within the class period.

13. Place low priority behavior before high priority behavior. For example, schedule spelling before recess. In other words, have an activity children don't like precede an activity they do.

14. When grading, mark correct answers rather than incorrect ones. It's better to make your marking as unobtrusive as possible. None of us likes to have his work defaced, especially with the errors pointed out in red pencil.

15. Create a positive psychological set among the members of the class. "Esprit de corps" works in schools as well as in the military. Don't actually tell the class they are good; that's being judgmental. Let them judge their own self-worth on the basis of your acknowledgement of their performance and observance of class rules.

16. If you feel you must threaten, be certain you can carry out your threats. Idle threats weaken your position.

17. On the subject of discipline, know your enemy. A trip to the office may be just what Billy wants at that moment so he can get out of a difficult assignment.

18. When you reprimand, do it privately to avoid humiliating the child.

19. Avoid exacting confessions. The accused will probably only lie and you probably know who's guilty or what happened. It's better to tell the child you know what he did and that you don't want him to do it again. Then drop the matter.

20. Avoid challenges, too. If you dare a child to misbehave, he will more than likely take you up on it.

21. Suggest that a child who harms another in some way should apologize, but don't make him do so. Forcing an apology creates hypocrisy.

22. Beware of mass punishment. If a child misbehaves, he should bear the responsibility, not the entire class or the whole row. If you don't know who did it, better drop it rather than accuse the whole class.

23. If you must resort to punishment, do so only if you intend to reinforce acceptable behavior immediately afterward.

Try one or two of these at first. When you feel you can use them skillfully, add a few more. For heaven's sake, don't try them all at once. And that is about the only "don't" I'll mention.

The key to effective behavior management is, as a popular song of the 1940's put it, "You've got to accentuate the positive and eliminate the negative".

AREA: Intervention Strategies - Making Clear Rules
SOURCE: Provided by Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1

MAKING CLEAR RULES

1. A good rule must be definable. It must be clear to both the teacher and the pupil when the rule is broken.

   Example: Not definable: You must work hard.
   Definable: You must work at your seat for 20 minutes.

2. A good rule is reasonable. It must be reasonable both in time and capabilities to perform it.

   Example: If child has had difficulty sitting for 5 minutes, it is not reasonable to expect him to sit in his seat for 20 minutes. It might be reasonable to sit for 7 to 10 minutes.

3. A good rule is enforceable. Whenever a rule is stated, the teacher must anticipate that it will be broken. If he cannot enforce it consistently he cannot expect a child to follow it. Will the teacher know each time the child breaks the rule without depending on other people's testimony?

   Example: Not enforceable: You must play cooperatively on the playground.
   Enforceable: You must complete the math assignment before you do art.

AREA: Professional Development
SOURCE: Submitted by Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1
PROCEDURE: For use as a guide in professional growth, teacher may set personal goals to improve in different areas.

CHECKLIST

Positive Control of Student Behavior Conducive to Learning

_____ teacher ignores inappropriate, attention-getting behaviors.

_____ teacher uses a variety of meaningful verbal reinforcers.

_____ teacher maintains good eye contact when rewarding the child.

_____ teacher uses proximity to control behavior.

_____ teacher has established class rules and the children understand and basically agree to them.

_____ teacher does not begin until all children are attending.

_____ teacher touches, smiles, nods, winks, etc. to reward.

_____ teacher uses specific, sequential steps in giving directions.

_____ teacher requires that the students demonstrate understanding before proceeding.

_____ teacher recognizes and rewards attempts or partially met answers.

_____ teacher is genuinely enthusiastic.

_____ teacher uses voice to imply intent.

_____ teacher moves around the room during her presentations.

_____ teacher uses cues to regain individual attention.

_____ teacher modifies tasks to reflect student needs.

_____ teacher gives rewards appropriately.

_____ teacher says "thank you", "please", etc. when talking to the students.

_____ teacher calls children by first name.

_____ teacher supports child. Example: "I know how you feel."

_____ teacher uses intentional mistakes, suspense, drama, "out of ordinary" events to maintain interest.

_____ teacher describes behavior when rewarding.

_____ teacher praises process not only product.

_____ teacher makes the children aware of the goals and objectives of each lesson.

_____ teacher evaluates and grades from a positive standpoint.

AREA: Intervention Strategies
SOURCE: Submitted by Gary Henry, AEA #15

INTERVENTIONS SUCCESSFULLY USED WITH EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED AND BEHAVIOR PROBLEM CHILDREN

Behavior Modification Intervention:

1. Reinforce appropriate behavior as it occurs in a classroom, with a social or tangible reinforcer and back-up reinforcer when appropriate.

2. Adults record or reinforce behavior in the classroom -- support person provides back-up reinforcer.

3. Student records performance on specific behaviors in classroom (self reinforcement) - back-up reinforcers may be available in or out of the classroom.

4. Adults manage intervention plan -- parent provides back-up reinforcer.

5. Token economy system used to reinforce specific behaviors for all students in classroom.

6. Reinforce specific behavior for class to earn a group reward.

Time-Out Interventions:

1. Tension reduction: Support person (semi-contagious) monitors time-away from classroom stress for student, in pleasant area (library), when either student or teacher determines environmental and/or internal tensions might precipitate problem behavior.

2. Specified behavior: Adult has established specific behavior that will require student to be removed from classroom. (Some time-out systems may provide one warning which includes labeling the behavior.)

Personal Communication Interventions:

1. Planned Ignoral: Adults respond to appropriate or inappropriate behavior by maintaining or eliminating eye contact and by positive or negative shift of body orientation to child.

2. Signal Interference: Adults use a pre-arranged verbal or body signal to indicate student is exhibiting a specific behavior. Used with both appropriate and inappropriate behaviors.

3. Labeling Behaviors: Adults identify specific behavior by using a consistent label to identify the behavior. (Used in the shaping of behaviors and as a confrontation technique when student is rationalizing or fantisizing).

4. Confirming Behaviors: Adults describe behavior student has exhibited to support realization of ability and effort.

5. Affirmation Strategy: Adults verbally affirm student's specific affective or performance potential at least five times a day. Student is encouraged to be an active participant by frequently affirming own potential and then actively working toward actualization of statement.

6. Activity and Proximity Control: Adults recognize situations that are stressful for student and places self in close proximity to student to provide a physical limit and/or safety shield for student.

7. Physical Contact or Direction: Adults intervene in potentially stressful, authority defying, or disruptive situation by touching student or gently, firmly moving (guiding) student in direction required by situation.

8. Verbal Assumption: Adults make a statement which implies that a student is intending or motivated to perform appropriately when situation indicates the student is wavering toward inappropriate behavior.

9. Rehearsing or Self Coaching: Adults develop with student a method for child to direct own behavior verbalizing sequence of appropriate behaviors.

10. Role Playing: Adult acts out behavior for student, monitors student practice performance, reinforces appropriate behavior in controlled social setting. (Can use videotape playback assistance, if necessary).

11. Model Selection: Adults direct student attention to behavior of students (never just one) who are correctly performing tasks or social actions. Be alert to reinforce students who imitate behavior after watching successful student and spontaneously emitting approximation of behavior.

12. Modeling or Imitation: Adults group student with two or more children (models) who appropriately perform tasks or social actions so that the child can successively approximate their behavior. Again, reinforce spontaneous approximations.

13. Reflecting Emotions: Adults label the emotion(s) student appears to be expressing by behaviors to initiate awareness of student to the feeling concomitants of behaviors and the words used to describe those feelings.

Academic Performance Interventions:

1. Office Space: Adults provide work area which reduces potential distractors.

2. Curriculum Adjustment: Adults cooperatively develop task requirements, specialized curriculum, or modified assignments that provide optimum success for student.

3. Task Responses: Adults indicate correct responses and allow student to "improve" items not marked to increase number of correct responses.

4. Task Organization: Adults organize progression of tasks to vary demands as appropriate to child: required to optional tasks, passive to active tasks, study/work time to free time.

Temporal/Environmental Change Interventions:

1. Position in Classroom: Adults place student in desk positioned to provide optimum interaction with teacher and/or other students (models).

2. Classroom Placement: Adults determine optimum classroom teacher and group of classmates. Child is shifted to this room.

3. Length of Student School Day: Adults determine optimum length of school day to correspond to functional level of student and student's capability to manage a school day.

AREA: Discipline
SOURCE: Carl Smith, ED Consultant, Department of Public Instruction
PROCEDURE: The following article provides some guidelines for approaching classroom discipline. The suggestions may be presented to general education teachers to help them achieve better classroom control.

DISCIPLINE IN THE CLASSROOM

Discipline is one of our biggest public relations problems. Discussing a youngster's misbehavior with his parents is one of the toughest jobs a teacher must tackle. Teachers sometimes try disciplinary action that does more harm than good. Their desperation measures may work for the moment (although they can't even count on that), but the long-range effects are often greater misbehavior.

Behaviorist Principles

Behaviors that are followed by satisfying or rewarding events are more likely to reoccur than behaviors that are followed by painful or non-rewarding events. An effective plan for behavior management will identify kinds of activities and events that give students pleasure that can then be used as "reinforcers" whenever the desired behaviors have occured. The more promptly reinforcement follows an act, the more effective it will be. For example, a teacher who walks about the classroom commenting on the pupil's work or behavior produces better results than the one who waits until the end of the period to comment.

Set up Reasonable Behavior Goals

Ask yourself what you see as a productive environment for learning to occur. Do not use these principles to make children conform to a rigid idea of goodness, to squelch creativity or to force sterile compliance. The cost of an orderly classroom may be too high. You will be creating the learning environment.

Topics to Consider

What kind of student behavior interferes with the learning of the rest of the class, and what is perhaps annoying to you but essentially harmless to the learner and his peers?

How much classroom freedom can be permitted without interfering with the rights of other students?

Should silence be maintained while children are working or should reasonable communication among students be permitted? How can you define your standards in terms the children will understand?

Are you thinking of how the disruptive child can be helped to learn better, not just how his disruptive behavior can be decreased?

Before you decide to use punishment, have you exhausted the positive possibilities?

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What evidence do you have that your methods help children learn and influence their behavior positively?

Have you been able to maintain an attitude of openness to new ideas and approaches which can benefit children even though they do not coincide with your personal biases?

Have you considered the attitudes and standards of the child and his family in setting standards for the child? Are your standards in conflict with their's?

Have you discussed goals for the class with the class?

Have you discussed goals for the child with the child and his parents?

How much variance is desirable in classroom work? Is a particular student's answer really incorrect or is it actually original?

Avoid These TRAPS

THREATS

Using idle threats as a disciplinary measure is a waste of time, says University of Oregon's School Study Council in its publication, "Discipline Problems and Policies as They Relate to the Classroom Teacher." What will you do if the student takes you up on the challenge? If you aren't prepared to carry out the threat, your position is weakened.

ARGUMENT

Discussions that degenerate into teacher-pupil arguments only cause ill feeling on both sides. Nobody wins an argument, so keep your cool. Respond to a student's arguments with "Why do you feel that way?" or "Let's ask the class what they think about this: rather than with flat, argumentative statements of your own.

CONFESSION

Don't insist that a child "confess" his wrongdoing. He will usually deny it, thus adding a lie to this feeling of guilt. Is it always necessary to know who misbehaved? Chances are the teacher has an idea who it is already, and the "confession" is a degrading kind of punishment rather than a sincere desire for information.

HUMILIATION

Never humiliate a child by a public reprimand. This will not only embitter him but sometimes enlist the rest of the class on his side, against you. Great psychological injury can be inflicted on a child by belittling, ridiculing or humiliating a child, particularly in the presence of other children.

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EXTRA SCHOOLWORK

Never assign schoolwork as a punishment. The teacher who keeps misbehavers after school to do arithmetic problems or to write spelling words is labeling schoolwork as a painful thing, so unpleasant that it is used to punish wrongdoing.

SARCASM

Children don't always understand the meaning of a sarcastic remark, but they always understand its intent: to hurt their feelings.

COMPARISON

"Why can't you be as well behaved as your sister?" "You're the noisiest child in this room!" Attempts to improve behavior by comparing the child with others rarely work. They make the child resent or even hate the "better behaved" others. They may even inspire him to new heights of misbehavior, to show he doesn't care.

CHALLENGES

Don't challenge youngsters to misbehave. When you say, "The next person I catch throwing spitballs will have to stay after school," you are challenging them to do it without being caught. Many children with a spark of spirit will try, and risk punishment, just for the adventure of it. It is better to say, "Will those who have been throwing spitballs please stay a few minutes after school and pick them up? We don't want to leave the room in a mess."

MASS PUNISHMENT

Be fair. Don't punish the entire class for one child's misbehavior. It is like punishing an entire town for one person's crime.

The handling of discipline with a "guidance point of view" by the school principals and faculty is a very important aspect of morals building with pupils. Some principles that should characterize this important function are listed below. There SHOULD BE:

1. An attitude that "here is a pupil with a problem who needs our help; let's see what we can do for him," rather than "here is a problem pupil; what shall we do *to* him?"

2. An interpretation of the immediate problem as a learning experience which, if handled properly, will enable the pupil to meet his future problems more effectively.

3. An eagerness to hear fully the pupil's story first and to get his ideas regarding what should be done in the way of a solution.

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4. An attitude that carries no note of rejection of the pupil, but rather one of acceptance and respect for him as an individual, even though the pupil has apparently violated confidences or regulations in this or other instances.

5. An approach that clearly implies an existing "partnership" between the pupil and the school, the major purpose of which are: (a) To help the pupil make good in school and (b) To help make the school a better place for all pupils.

6. An attitude of impartiality and fairness, consistency and firmness, all savored with easily discernible interest and understanding.

7. An attitude that is always more willing to commend for even partial successes than to condemn for failures.

8. An attitude based upon a firm faith in the improvability of human beings -- optimism rather than pessimism -- and which focused attention mostly upon the future and its potentialities, rather than upon the past and any of its shortcomings.

9. An approach which tends to build or restore, rather than destroy, a feeling of security on the part of the pupil. The fact that he is in his present predicament probably indicates at least some lack of well-rooted feeling of security at school, in his home or among his fellow pupils and peers.

10. A willingness to help the pupil work out a plan which may: (a) Make at least partial amends for any unfortuante consequences of his past conduct; (b) Ameliorate the immediate situation; (c) Tend to preclude the possibility of a recurrence of the present unfavorable situation; and (d) Substitute more constructive activities for the future.

11. A willingness to register, and if necessary re-register, a vote of confidence in the pupil by: (a) Assigning him further responsibility; (b) Suggesting clearly how he may carry it out; (c) Seeing that the conditions requisite for its successful performances are made as favorable as possible.

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AREA: Managing Behavior
SOURCE: Hager, Robert F. and Peter Pipe. Analyzing Performance Problems or "You Really Oughta Wanna". Belmont, California: Fearon Publishing Co., 1970. p. 100-105.

KEY ISSUES AND QUESTIONS FOR MANAGING BEHAVIORS

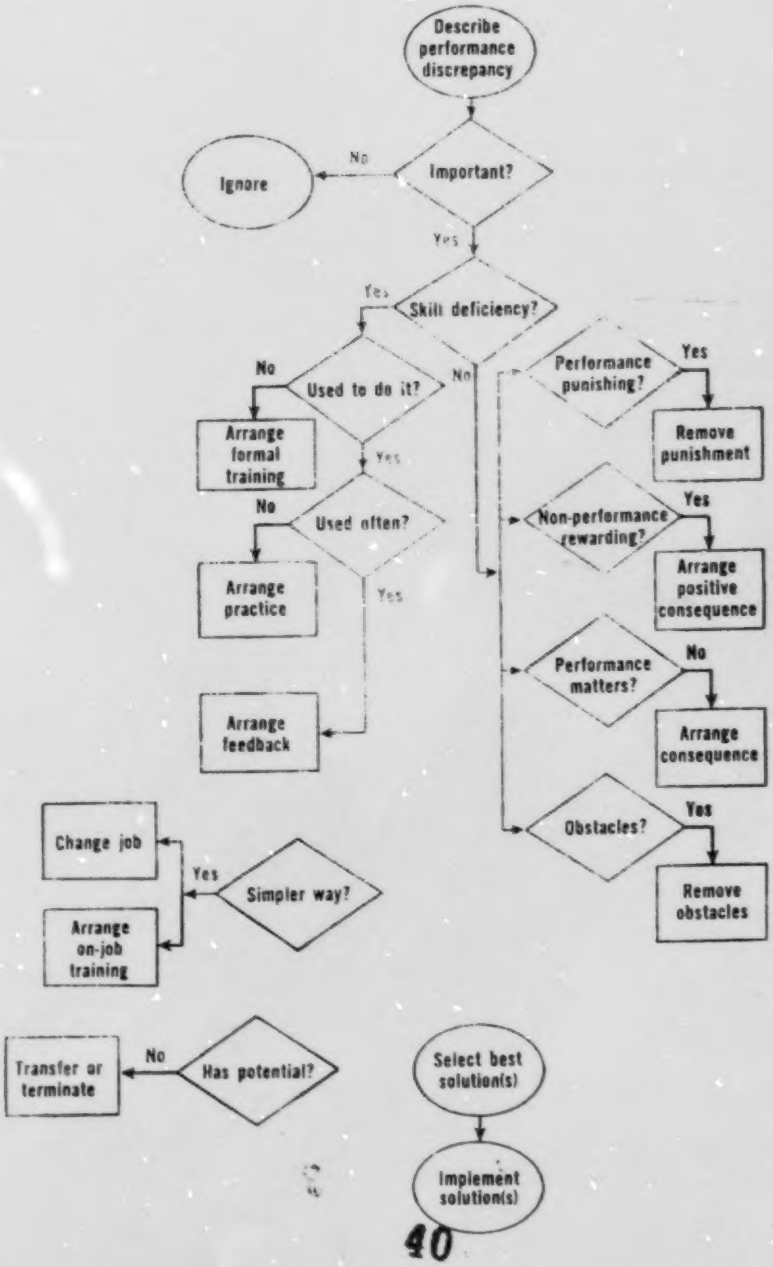
KEY ISSUES	QUESTIONS TO ASK
I. He isn't doing what he should be doing. I think I've got a training problem.	
1. What is the performance discrepancy?	Why do I think there is a training problem?
	What is the difference between what is being done and what is supposed to be done?
	What is the event that causes me to say that things aren't right?
	Why am I dissatisfied?
2. Is it important?	Why is the discrepancy important?
	What would happen if I left the discrepancy alone?
	Could doing something to resolve the discrepancy have any worthwhile result?
3. Is it a skill deficiency?	Could he do it if he really had to?
	Could he do it if his life depended on it?
	Are his present skills adequate for the desired performance?
II. Yes. It is a skill deficiency. He couldn't do it if his life depended on it.	
4. Could he do it in the past?	Did he once know how to perform as desired?
	Has he forgotten how to do what I want him to do?

KEY ISSUES	QUESTIONS TO ASK
5. Is the skill used often?	How often is the skill of performance used?
	Does he get regular feedback about how well he performs?
	Exactly how does he find out how well he is doing?
6. Is there a simpler solution?	Can I change the job by providing some kind of job aid?
	Can I store the needed information some way (written instructions, checklists) other than in someone's head?
	Can I show rather than train?
	Would informal (i.e., on-the-job) training be sufficient?
7. Does he have what it takes?	Could he learn the job?
	Does he have the physical and mental potential to perform as desired?
	Is he over-qualified for the job?
III. It is not a skill deficiency. He could do it if he wanted to.	
8. Is desired performance punishing?	What is the consequence of performing as desired?
	Is it punishing to perform as expected?
	Does he perceive desired performance as being geared to penalties?
	Would his world become a little dimmer (to him) if he performed as desired?

KEY ISSUES	QUESTIONS TO ASK
9. Is non-performance rewarding?	What is the result of doing it his way instead of my way?
	What does he get out of his present performance in the way of reward, prestige, status, jollies?
	Does he get more attention for misbehaving than for behaving?
	What event in the world supports (rewards) his present way of doing things? (Are you inadvertently rewarding irrelevant behavior while overlooking the crucial behaviors?)
	Is he "mentally inadequate", so that the less he does the less he has to worry about?
	Is he physically inadequate, so that he gets less tired if he does less?
10. Does performing really matter?	Does performing as desired matter to the performer?
	Is there a favorable outcome for performing?
	Is there an undesirable outcome for not performing?
	Is there a source of satisfaction for performing?
	Is he able to take pride in his performance, as an individual or as a member of a group?
	Does he get satisfaction of his needs from the job?

KEY ISSUES	QUESTIONS TO ASK
11. Are there obstacles to performing?	What prevents him from performing?
	Does he know what is expected of him?
	Does he know when to do what is expected of him?
	Are there conflicting demands on his time?
	Does he lack the authority? . . . the time? . . . the tools?
	Is he restricted by policies or by a "right way of doing it" or "way we've always done it" that ought to be changed?
	Can I reduce interference by improving lighting? . . . changing colors? . . . increasing comfort? . . . modifying the work position? . . . reducing visual or auditory distractions?
	Can I reduce "competition from the job" -- phone calls, "brush fires", demands of less important but more immediate problems?
IV. What should I do now?	
12. Which solution is best?	Are any solutions inappropriate or impossible to implement?
	Are any solutions plainly beyond our resources?
	What would it "cost" to go ahead with the solution?
	What would be the added "value" if I did?
	Is it worth doing?

KEY ISSUES	QUESTIONS TO ASK
12. (continued) Which solution is best?	Which remedy is likely to give us the most result for the least effort? Which are we best equipped to try? Which remedy interests us most? (Or, on the other side of the coin, which remedy is most visible to those who must be pleased?)


Describe performance discrepancy
Important?
No
Ignore
Yes
Skill deficiency?
Yes
No
Used to do it?
No
Arrange formal training
Yes
Used often?
No
Arrange practice
Yes
Arrange feedback
Performance punishing?
Yes
Remove punishment
Non-performance rewarding?
Yes
Arrange positive consequence
Performance matters?
No
Arrange consequence
Obstacles?
Yes
Remove obstacles
Simpler way?
Yes
Change job
Arrange on-job training
Has potential?
No
Transfer or terminate
Select best solution(s)
Implement solution(s)

AREA: Logical Consequences
LEVEL: PIJS
SOURCE: John Platt and Helen Millman
PROCEDURE: Discipline and management techniques are most successful when based upon logical consequences. The following outline provides guidelines for implementing this approach.

PRINCIPALS OF LOGICAL CONSEQUENCES IN A DEMOCRATIC SETTING

Prepared by John Platt with help from Helen Millman.

1. Natural and logical consequences -- alternative to autocratic punishment.

2. Consequences are logically connected to specific behavior and specific total situation.

3. Respect is maintained for rights and dignity of both child and adult.

4. Where situation is recurring one, such as eating problems, the consequences can be discussed in a calm moment with the child once.

5. There is always another opportunity given to the child. This does not mean he is protected from consequences by a second chance. The next time a situation arises, he has another chance to choose his behavior.

6. Action and not words.

7. Understand that the goal is important, it is a general rule of thumb to not try to apply "logical consequences" in a power struggle.

8. The implicit attitude of the adult, which may or may not be expressed casually and briefly, is that of mild regret that the child has chosen action leading to these consequences but that next time he will probably choose another behavior more in accord with situational realities. Thus the adult's purpose has no punitive undertones, nor is there an implication of superiority. The emotions of the adult are not negative - hostility, anger, unhappiness, depression, feelings of being abused, disappointment.

9. Only one behavior is handled at any one time. No other issues are dealt with. For example, if the child's reaction is to whine, cry, to shout in anger, this is his right. This is not the time to try to correct this behavior. If it interferes with the consequences, it may be dealt with, but only on that basis.

10. After the interaction, the adult evaluates his own purpose, behavior and emotions.

Some common pitfalls on the part of an adult:

1. Feeling sorry for the child -- this may teach him to feel sorry for himself.

2. Giving him a second chance - this may teach him he can get away with irresponsibility.

3. Taking a punitive attitude, impatience, ridicule, humiliation, shame, retaliation - he'll have reason to be hostile, and he'll be learning that to be powerful is the safest way to deal with people.

4. Fearing the consequence is too easy - it is not necessary for a consequence to be difficult or unpleasant. Most of them are somewhat unpleasant and uncomfortable, but suffering is not an essential or necessary part of the learning process.

5. Showing inconsistency and vacillation, perhaps subordinating the order of the family or teaching situation to one's momentary wishes - why should the child believe you will mean it the next time.

6. Working on more than one behavior at the moment - particularly in not being pleased with the way the child takes consequences; he is either not demonstrating enough misery or he is trying to get out of it. The positive possibilities of the consequence may thus be cancelled out by an unwitting reinforcement of the child's mistaken goal.

7. Feeling guilty - again he may learn that it pays for him to feel abused if the adult feels guilty about him.

8. Too much talking - this also may be cancelling the consequences by reinforcing the child's goal.

9. Giving way to expediency - at the moment it is sometimes easier on the adult to punish or overlook than to take the time and thought to initiate logical consequences and carry them through adequately and peacefully.

10. Expecting standards of behavior from the child not expected of the adult.

11. Rubbing it in, "I told you so" - anything that increases the child's anger against the adult decreases his willingness to assess the consequences as logical within the group structure and also his willingness to be an involved participant in the evolving family culture.

NATURAL AND LOGICAL CONSEQUENCES

I. Definitions

A. Natural Consequences:

The natural results of ill-advised acts. The unavoidable consequences of the deeds which they follow. The inevitable reactions entitled by the child's actions whether or not the adult is present. Example clothes not in the laundry do not get washed.

B. Logical Consequences:

The consequence has a logical relationship to the misdeed. It is in effect arranged by the adult rather than being solely the result of the child's own acts. A choice is given between two or more alternatives. If a misjudgment is made the child rather than the adult accepts the responsibility for the consequences. Example the child or the parent can pick up the child's clothes. The person who picks them up, however, decides what will be done with them (the parent may decide to put them in the attic for a while).

C. Punishment:

A method by which a "superior" enforces his demands upon his "inferior". Punishment is retaliatory, illogical, and arbitrary rather than corrective. Example "You are bad to have such a messy room with clothes all over the floor. Therefore, I am not going to let you watch T.V. for 3 weeks."

II. Differences between Logical and Natural Consequences and Punishment.

Consequences	Punishment
1. Expresses the reality of the social order or the situation - not of the person - Democratic.	1. Expresses the power of a personal authority - Authoritarian.
2. Logically related to the misbehavior.	2. Not logical, only an arbitrary connection between misbehavior and consequences.
3. Involves no element of moral judgment.	3. Inevitably involves some moral judgment.
4. Concerned only with what will happen now.	4. Deals with the past.
5. The relationship and atmosphere are friendly. Resentment is minimized.	5. Often anger is present either overtly or covertly. Resentment is frequent.
6. Develops intrinsic motivation and self-discipline.	6. Depends on extrinsic motivation.
7. No submission or humiliation.	7. Often requires submission or humiliation.
8. Freedom of choice within limits.	8. No alternative or choice.
9. Consequences are acceptable.	9. Punishment is at best only tolerable.

Consequences	Punishment
10. Thoughtful and deliberate/ not impulsive.	10. Often impulsive.
11. Child feels important.	11. Child feels belittled.
12. Choice given once only/ doesn't involve nagging.	12. Often involves endless nagging.
13. Uses action.	13. Uses talking and coercion.
14. The child accepts responsibility for his own actions.	14. The adult takes responsibility for the child's actions.
15. The adult is disengaged from negative involvement with the child.	15. Involvement is always negative.
16. Based on the concept of equality of worth between children and adults.	16. Based on superior-inferior-superior relationship between children and adults - fear of punishment.
17. Implies that the child can work out his own problems.	17. Implies that only an adult is capable of solving the child's problem.

III. Problems in the Use of Natural and Logical Consequences.

1. A logical consequence may be viewed as punishment by a powerful or revengeful child particularly if the adult also exhibits powerful behavior.

2. For logical consequences to work well there is a need for a good relationship to be developed between the child and adult. The relationship and friendliness must be genuine. If the adult feels personally involved, threatened or defeated, it will be difficult to apply logical consequences. The adult's tone of voice is a critical indication of his attitude toward this child.

3. There is a need for constructive and supportive training of the child to be conducted in conjunction with the use of logical consequences. This training should be conducted at a non-conflict time.

4. Encouragement is needed at the time when corrective action is being taken. As an adult withdraws from negative involvement with children there is a greater need for positive involvement.

5. The adult must recognize his position of equality of value and worth with children. (This does not imply that adults and children are the same.) The adult needs to be able to admit his own mistakes.

6. When a logical consequence fails it is important to analyze step-by-step each action in the situation to find out where the source of the problem may be found. Often the error will be discovered in some component of the adult's behavior. Success or failure depends on how the child perceives the situation.

7. It is often difficult to think of an adequate logical or natural consequence in a time of crisis. The secret here is to work on one thing at a time so that a repertoire of logical consequences can be developed. Over a period of time with some effort a "New Tradition" of relating with children can be established. It is worth the effort that may be required.

THE CONCEPT OF LOGICAL CONSEQUENCES

In order to understand logical consequences it is first necessary to explain what is meant by a natural consequence. To do this we must recognize the logic of behavior which seems to characterize the activities of all living organisms. In order to survive, all living beings must function in a way which is compatible in some degree to their environmental conditions. If they do not they will die. Applying this to human behavior, we can assume that no one will willingly do what he believes is not good for himself. Every act has a consequence, and if we are to avoid unpleasant results of our acts, we must behave in a way which will help guarantee more favorable results. The term natural consequence, then, has been defined as denoting the natural results of ill-advised acts. Unpleasant results lead to an avoidance of certain acts in the future, unless there is some - often mistaken - benefit in their continuation.

In contrast to natural consequences, the term logical consequence is used by Dr. Dreikurs to define situations where the consequence is, in effect, arranged by the parent or another adult, rather than being solely the result of the child's own acts. In order for a logical consequence to be effective it must be experienced by the child as logical in nature, or the corrective effect may be lost.

There is also a definite difference between the use of logical consequences and punishment in raising children. The best way to clarify this difference is to list the criteria distinguishing logical consequences from punishment. The specific criteria distinguishing logical consequences from punishment are as follows:

1. Logical consequences express the reality of the social order, not of the person; punishment, the power of a personal authority.

2. The logical consequence is logically related to the misbehavior; punishment rarely is.

3. Logical consequences involve no element of moral judgment; punishment inevitably does.

4. Logical consequences are concerned only with what will happen now; punishment with the past.

5. The voice is friendly when logical consequences are involved; there is anger in punishment, either open or concealed.

(Courtesy of Shelter Care Handbook)

EXAMPLES OF LOGICAL CONSEQUENCES

Behavior: Child refuses to do math during the assigned period.

Teacher Reaction: "You may choose not to do the assignment now, but it must be completed before you get involved in the next activity." (Which could be science, gym, lunch, going home on the school bus, seeing a movie, going to the assembly, etc.)

Behavior: Two boys took another boy's hat and then lost it.

Teacher Reaction: A hat was purchased and put in the BLC "General Store". The two boys will pay for it with the tickets they earn by completing academic tasks and engaging in positive behavior.

Behavior: Boy began to cry, throw a tantrum, when he discovered he had made an error on a test. (This had been ongoing, manipulating behavior with this particular child.)

Teacher Reaction: Child was given the choice of knocking off the crying and remaining in the classroom or leaving the classroom and continuing his crying.

Behavior: Several students were misusing the telex machines, messing with the volume, etc.

Teacher Reaction: "It looks like you're not ready to use this machine the way the instructions say it is to be used. You can try again tomorrow." She then gives them less stimulating work to do.

Behavior: Boy wastes a good deal of time brushing his teeth, getting his tennis shoes for gym, or starting any activity.

Teacher Reaction: Teacher records "extra" time taken and has the boy begin getting ready for the new task ahead of the rest of the class. Example: The boys must cut short his free time or gym period to get ready for the following task or activity.

Contracting

This is an agreement between the teacher and the student in which both equally participate in designing the contract. One student behavior is stated as unacceptable and, in a conference between the teacher and student, an agreement is made. This is then put into writing stating:

1) what the student will do to achieve the reward, and/or punishment, and
2) what the teacher has agreed to do.

Rules for Contingency Contracts --

1) The reward must be given immediately.

2) Contract should be for a small amount of behavior.

3) Frequent rewards should be provided.

4) Reward the performance after it occurs.

5) Contract must be fair and terms must be clear.

6) Contracts must be implemented honestly.

7) Contract must be phrased in a positive manner.

8) Contracting must be carried out consistently.

9) A date for the contract to end.

10) A means of renegotiating the contract should it fail.

Self-Management

Teaching children to manage their own behavior has several advantages to the classroom teacher, as well as providing learning experiences for the individual student.

Some of these advantages are:

1. When a child monitors his own behavior, he begins the first step toward self-evaluation and self-control. He relies on his own ability to judge his behavior -- it becomes his responsibility -- rather than emphasizing reliance upon another individual. This also leads to develop independence.
2. Self-management provides assistance to you, the teacher. At the beginning of such a program, you may need to also monitor the student's behavior, however as the child becomes more proficient and reliable in this charting, it can be a terrific time-saver for you!
3. Students are often highly motivated when they are allowed to assume responsibility for their own behavior.
4. When a student is instructed in correcting, counting, charting and evaluating his/her own performance, he/she is learning functional ways to add, divide, tell time and compare.
5. Creates a more trusting relationship between student and teacher.
6. Limits power struggles!

Problem: Fighting
When: At recess

* It is essential that the student be instructed in alternative methods of dealing with the reasons he is fighting.

Contingency Contract

For every 6 recesses that Troy walks away from a physical confrontation (he doesn't fight), he will earn an "extra" 15 minute recess for the entire class.

Management Plan

Troy will receive 5 points for every recess he does not engage in fighting. When he receives 20 points, he may 1) choose an item from the "store", or 2) have 15 minutes of "activity time".

Logical Consequences

Because of the rule violation (fighting), Troy logically will have to leave the playground. The teacher would say, "It looks as though you have not yet learned to behave on the playground. You'll have to sit by the fence for the rest of the period." However, the next day, or the next time, he should have another chance. If he continues to break rules, he may have to wait more than a day before he can join the group.

Self-Management

After each recess, Troy will mark on his chart the number of times he "avoided a fight". For every 6 recesses without a fight, he will tell the teacher that he has earned the time to choose a friend to play basketball in the gym.

AREA: Bus Behavior Management
LEVEL: P,I
SOURCE: Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1

KENNEDY ELEMENTARY ED STUDENTS'

BUS BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

Rational

While some emotional disabilities students have demonstrated sufficient control to behave appropriately during busing, the majority continue to have regular difficulties in this unstructured portion of the day. Several steps have been taken in an attempt to improve this situation: (1) adding an additional bus to shorten the route length, (2) hiring of aides to assist the driver, (3) division/selection of students for more compatibility, and (4) inservicing of drivers and aides on management techniques. In order to reinforce, encourage, and shape good bus behavior, the following management system has been devised.

Management System

A token system to reward exemplary bus behavior has been developed which will (1) operate separate from the ED Classrooms existing management programs, (2) circumvent the difficulties of monitoring due to different AM/PM buses etc., (3) place the emphasis and recognition on good bus behavior, (4) provide appealing incentives to the students to display appropriate behavior, and (5) keep teacher involvement/monitoring to a minimum.

Students will be given a token at the conclusion of each bus ride for meeting five goals:

1. settling down quickly in assigned seat
2. keeping hands to self
3. talking quietly
4. staying in seat
5. following directions immediately without comment

All goals must be met to be awarded a token. A possible 10 tokens can be earned each week which may in turn be used to purchase privileges or items from the attached list. All tokens will be numbered and each student assigned a token number to encourage honesty and maintain the system's positive aspect.

For students who walk to school or have circumstances making this specific system ineffective, goals will be adapted to allow all to participate.

Misbehavior on the bus shall continue to be handled in routine ways.

Responsibilities

Bus Driver/Aide

1. Firm, positive management on bus.
2. Safe access to tokens, goals, student token numbers.
3. Rewarding good behavior verbally as well as handing out tokens at the conclusion of each trip.

4. Establishing reasonably high standards for behavior and interpreting goals consistently.

Student

1. Keeping track of/saving own tokens.
2. Cashing them in at appropriate times.

ED Teachers

1. Help students to organize method for saving tokens (i.e. butter tub banks, reminders, etc.)
2. Post list of privileges and purchases in classroom.
3. Establish procedures to facilitate purchasing (i.e. end of day wrap-up time, morning business time, etc.)
4. Allow for purchasing on a daily basis.
5. Maintain positive, encouraging attitude toward system.
6. Return tokens to bus drivers/aides as they are accumulated.

The systems emphasis on rewarding good behavior is purposeful and necessary. Such praise and reinforcing must be at the heart of this effort to assure its success. See the following list for token number assignment and list of payoffs.

PURCHASES

Item	Token Cost
Bathroom Pass	1
Bonus Points for Special Events	-
Pencil sharpening at undesignated times	1
Chocolate milk	5
Computer time (20 minutes)	5
Hardee's coupon - free cheeseburger, fries, sm. drink	12
Burger King coupon - free burger	10
Perkins coupon - free dessert and drink	10
Pizza Hut coupon - free pizza	20
Skate Country - free skate pass	20
Five Flags - free ice skate pass	20
Taco John coupon - miscellaneous free offers	7
Zip's coupon - free baseball cap sundae	15
Free movie pass	20

AREA: Self-Management
LEVEL: PIJS
SOURCE: Polly Arp, ED Supervisor, Grant Wood AEA
PROCEDURE: The formats on these three pages are given as a sample method for helping students chart their own behaviors.

SELF-MANAGEMENT PLAN

Student:______________________________ Dates:____________________

Behavior:____

The Times I Showed Self-Control					
The Times I "Messed Up"					

SELF-MANAGEMENT PLAN

Student:______________________________ Date:____________________

Behavior:____

1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12

SELF-MANAGEMENT PLAN

Student:______________________________ Date:______________________

Appropriate Behavior:____

For each 5 minutes of appropriate behavior, place an X in the square.

☐ 5   ☐ 10   ☐ 15   ☐ 20   ☐ 25   ☐ 30

Total time appropriate: ________________

	☺	☹	☺	☹	☺	☹	☺	☹	☺	☹	
20											20
19											19
18											18
17											17
16											16
15											15
14											14
13											13
12											12
11											11
10											10
9											9
8											8
7											7
6											6
5											5
4											4
3											3
2											2
1											1
	Monday		Tuesday		Wednesday		Thursday		Friday		

DATE: ____________________

AREA: Managing Behavior - Mediation Essay Approach
SOURCE: Polly Arp, ED Supervisor, Grant Wood AEA
PROCEDURE: The mediation essay is one approach which may help the student with behavior problems analyze situations in which he acts inappropriately.

Mediation Essays

Some children cannot talk clearly about their own problems or effective behaviors, and can provide only "sketchy and inaccurate" verbal pictures of what the rewards or punishments are for their behaviors. To foster such a youngster's ability to think "before, while and after action," the child can be given a typed copy of a paragraph describing the misbehavior, the desired behavior, and the consequences of both. He should practice and learn the paragraph by copying, paraphrasing, and reciting it orally. Then he should act out the disruptive behaviors while reading the consequences to each aloud. These "mediation essays" may be created for any disruptive child along the following lines:

Each mediation essay contains four questions and their answers. The first question might be, "What did I do wrong?" Which is followed by a sentence describing the child's misbehavior; for example, "I was walking around and making noise." The second question asks why the behavior is inappropriate; for example, "Why should I not walk around whenever I want to?" This question is followed by a statement describing vividly and in the child's vocabulary the consequences of this behavior: "If I disrupt the class by making noise, I may have to stay after school or write an essay about my behavior. Also, while not paying attention I am missing important work. Then I will not be able to understand what the class is doing and the class will be dull and boring. Time will drag slowly for me while others will find the assignments interesting." The third question focuses upon what the child should have been doing, followed by a brief but concrete description of the desired behavior: "I should walk across the room quietly, keeping my mouth closed and not touching others who are working." The fourth and last question concerns the reasons for the desired behavior, for example, "Why should I stay in my seat, or walk quietly?" This question is followed by a precise description of what the positive response from the teacher and class will be if the child displays those behaviors described as "what I should be doing." These descriptions should contain references to the tempting situations: "Even if I have a very interesting idea I should get permission before speaking. Then the teacher and my classmates will be more likely to listen to what I have to say."

Thus, if the child's picture of appropriate and inappropriate behavior and the consequences of these behaviors are unclear (and this is often the case), the child is given the means to think about and put into his own words what is expected. The teacher must not assume that merely telling the child about his misbehavior is enough to change it. Such an assumption often only leads to failure for the child and disappointment and frustration for the teacher.

MEDIATION ESSAY*

1. "What did I do wrong?"

2. "Why is it wrong for me to do this?"

3. "What should I have done?"

4. "What can I do differently next time so things will come out better?"

*If the student cannot perform this written task, then another method should be utilized such as dictating. Have student copy the dictation and sign it.

AREA: Confrontation Management
SOURCE: Mike Piersak, Area Education Agency 10

CONFRONTATION - MANAGEMENT

Step #1 - Teacher and students define Inappropriate, Non-Responsible Behaviors.

Sample of behaviors often discussed:

- Poor language
- Temper tantrums
- Not on task
- Talking out of turn
- Verbal aggressiveness
- Name calling
- Refusing instruction
- Loud talking
- Tardiness
- Stubborn behavior
- Not listening to authority
- Arguing
- Not staying on task
- Fighting
- Impulsive acts

CONSEQUENCES

(Following steps are explained to students.)

1) When a student demonstrates inappropriate behavior, the student will be told to stop the behavior and resume doing the assigned class work.

2) At the second sign of inappropriate behavior (or if the first inappropriate behavior is not under control) the teacher will ask the student about the behavior and see if the behavior can be brought under control.

3) If the student refuses to discuss the inappropriate behavior (at #2 above), and/or the student refuses to stop the behavior, the teacher will ask the student to go into an assigned time-out area for _____ minutes. At the end of the _____ minutes the student will be asked to discuss the behavior. At the conclusion of this discussion the student will complete a mediation essay and the return to the class.

4) If the student refuses to go to the assigned time-out area, or if the student does go to the area but continues to act in an inappropriate manner and/or refuses to complete the mediation essay, the student will be told that he/she has ______ minutes to do as asked or be sent home.

5) The student's home will be contacted if the student is to be sent home. Parents will be requested to pick up the student at school if possible. If the parent is unable to pick up student and the student refuses to leave school, and/or the behavior becomes out of control, local official will be called to take the student off the school grounds.

6) The student can return to school on the specified day but must return with a parent and must explain in writing why he/she was sent home. If the student returns to school without a parent and/or refuses to complete the mediation essay, the student will be sent home.

7) If the student is sent home on two consecutive days he/she will be suspended for ______ days. When the student returns he/she will be placed on a check management system.

AREA: Reinforcement
LEVEL: PIJS
PROCEDURE: The following lists provide suggestions for reinforcement techniques which are effective for students.

I. BEHAVIORS THAT CARRY THEIR OWN REWARDS

Taking pride in one's achievement

Knowing that you're a better person.

Having a sense of increased self-confidence.

Overcoming a problem or handicap.

Allowing a student to plot and recognize his progress.

Letting the student catch teacher mistakes.

Developing a sense of mastery.

Providing for repetition by converting drills into games.

Winning a dictionary (25 cents) by recognizing and circling most words in a maze of letters.

Writing creative short stories with the addition that the children are allowed to interrupt and to ask the correct spelling of difficult words.

Doing an exercise involving sentences. One half of a sentence is written by the teacher, the student finishes the sentence (the only requirement is that the sentence must make sense).

Dismissing students from last test, and giving them a grade of 100, if all daily assignments are handed in for the marking period.

Having teacher aide read to student or having students read to teacher aide.

Using a tape recorder. Permitting students to talk into it and listen to their voices. (This exercise is used to encourage listening and language.)

Timing math assignment with a three-minute egg timer -- "Beat the timer."

Letting students do old worksheets.

Solving mysteries in which the solution is based on various points of word usage.

Letting a child with desirable behavior have a portion of the bulletin board to put up whatever he wants.

Being able to control and delay gratification

Giving a child a piece of a whole puzzle. On completion of the puzzle he ca have a sense of accomplishment.

Increased curiosity: "Doing something novel"

Using slides, especially in an area of interest.

Using microscope (swamp water for blank slides and prepared slides are available).

Working with geology kit (the student is assigned an unknown rock, and he performs tests at his desk to identify the rock).

Allowing student to explore his curiosity about a subject.

II. TANGIBLE REWARDS

Balloons. (P)

Stars (on forehead). (P)

Rubber stamps of animal pictures. (P)

A band on child's desk with objects to be colored; for every row of completed assignment, the child could color one object (animals, cars, circus persons, etc.) (P)

Toys (slinkie, bubble blowers, model airplanes). (P,E)

Use of stamps or stickers (old Christmas seals or magazine stamps). (P,E)

Plastic multicolored rings which lock together and can be used to make necklaces and chains or can be used for purchases in the school store. (P,E)

Tokens. (P,E)

Ribbon awards. These can be specially fitted (The Winnie the Pooh Award - for the quietest student, The Christopher Robin Hood Work Award, the Courtesy Award). (P,E)

Raisins, popcorn, apples, milk, marshmallows. (P,E)

Baseball cards. (P,E)

Use of view master. (P,E)

The use of the punching bag. (E)

Teacher's sunglasses -- could wear them out to the playground and back into the classroom. (E)

Swimming cap: girl could earn one if she would enter pool and learn how to swim. (E)

Pens, pencils, bookends, and other school-related items. (E,J-S)

The use of the typewriter. (E,J-S)

Magazines (Hot Rod, Seventeen, Sports Illustrated, Popular Mechanics). (E,J-S)

Special passes. (E,J-S)

Use of popular music and own special records (earphones). (E,J-S)

Bringing in favorite "personality posters" to put up in place of instructor's own picture. (E,J-S)

Records and tapes.

Athletic passes. (J-S)

Tickets to swimming pool. (J-S)

Access to weights for body building. (J-S)

Pinball machine to play. (J-S)

Door Key for delinquent boys in correctional institutions. (J-S)

Buttons with current rage sayings. (J-S)

Teacher's tie -- boy admired teacher's tie; could wear it on Friday if behaved during week. (J-S)

Beauty aids, such as hair cream, combs, make-up. (J-S)

Points. (P,E,J-S)

Checkmarks. (P,E,J-S)

Educational puzzles. (P,E,J-S)

Money given by parents over and above the student's allowance. (P,E,J-S)

Comics (Popeye Career Comics). (P,E,J-S)

Going to drinking fountain without permission. (P,E,J-S)

The use of teacher's staplers, magic markers, and paper punch in some personal project. (P,E,J-S)

III. SOCIAL REWARDS

Approval and recognition from authority figures such as parents, teachers, counselors, principals, patrol guards, custodians

Smiling Sam: a smiling face for good papers; a smiling face with a wink for papers needing improvement; and a frowning face for unacceptable work. (P)

Putting name of students on the board for the most improved behavior or good behavior. (P,E)

Nonverbal social rewards (patting head, ruffling hair, winking, touching hand). (P,E)

Take Polaroid picture of student, placing his picture in frame for "The Most Improved Student of the Week." (P,E)

Early dismissal -- either from school to be first in line for busses or before lunch. (P,E)

Pick the teacher as a playmate for a game. (P,E)

A note of good behavior sent to parents. (P,E)

If the disorderly child got through one half of the day successfully, the teacher gave him a note so stating to take to the principal, who placed the commendation in a frame with his picture. (P,E)

Placing the child's name on the board for desirable behavior; teacher could have a special place on the board for "Names of the Behavers". (P,E)

Have parents or someone of student's choice invited to visit the classroom. (P,E,)

Express interest both verbally and written on his papers. Use of humor, "in-group" or currently popular expressions such as "Zowey," "Bravo," "Neato," "A-O-K," "Wow," "Fantastic!!" "Terrific!!" "Delightful," "Nifty," "Fabulous!" "Exciting!!" "Show this to your parents" (These could also be used for feedback purposes). (E,J-S)

Children given double A's for accomplishments such as neatest papers, attention during reading period, behavior problem improvement, and the like. The children are allowed to see their marks at any time. (E,J-S)

Communicating respect ("Your answer was clever", "Nobody else thought of that"; "Jim your explanation was crystal clear", "Clarence, it's a pleasure having you in class when you work like this"). (P,E,J-S)

Friendliness, warmth (walking with student; putting your hand on student's shoulder; smiling; announcing student's birthday). (P,E,J-S)

Have parent or principal sign good papers. (P,E,J-S)

Have special rewards available on Mondays and Fridays so that the school week opens and closes on a pleasant note. (P,E,J-S)

Approval from peer group

Citizenship award. (P,E)

Class project for cooperation is to work on class newspaper. Reward for participation is being voted "Reporter of the week"; "Photographer of the month," etc. (E)

"Who's Who Club" -- All the girls in the class belong to the club, and can only keep their membership by displaying a well-behaved manner at all times. They were allowed to have various types of activities. (E)

Let a student who has been "good" place the stars on his classmates "A" papers. (E)

Can go on overnights with class. (E,J-S)

Can be member of class council. (E,J-S)

Playing musical instrument or singing. (E,J-S)

Going on a cookout. (J-S)

Going to the lounge. (J-S)

Spending time with that "someone special". (J-S)

"Home movies"made of class activities. (J-S)

Express interest in him and his improved behavior. (P,E,J-S)

Symbols of status and responsibility

Can feed and take home over weekend class pets (rabbits, parakeets, ant farm, turtles, hamsters). (P,E)

Can be first in line, could have an added designation with either titles or props ("The Door Man," "The White Hat Child," "The Sheriff.") (P,E)

Being allowed to sit in teacher's chair. (P,E)

Be bathroom supervisoror at the end of recess. (E)

Being able to give the practice spelling test. (E)

Reward for poor reader in the upper grades to go to the first grade to read or write stories for them as a tutor. (E)

Be stage manager for a class play. (E,J-S)

For physical education: (E,J-S)
  Don't dress for class -- be a coach.
  Be assistant referee.
  Take an early shower.
  Check showers, supplies, and equipment.

Be attendance taker for coming to school on time. (E,J-S)

Correcting papers after finishing assignment. (E,J-S)

Being allowed to be the class librarian for the day. (E,J-S)

Working on an extra curricular movie-making project. (J-S)

Allowing students career selection options in elective courses, choice within required courses, or independent study. (J-S)

Making homework optional. (J-S)

Assisting in deciding on format of the course. (J-S)

Inviting guest speakers. (J-S)

Choosing criterion for evaluation (homework, attendance). (J-S)

Handling minor classroom interruptions for the teacher. (J-S)

Tutoring younger children. (J-S)

Getting a more convenient parking place. (J-S)

Getting time to serve in a local hospital as a community service. (J-S)

Displaying work at PTA meetings. (J-S)

Riding a varsity bus to an away game. (J-S)

Making up a geometry (or subject area) quiz, administering it to the rest of the class and the scoring and grading of it. Student would receive a grade for the job. (J-S)

Appear as guest lecturer in other classes. (J-S)

Choosing the extra credit problems for the week and determining how they will affect the students' grade. (J-S)

Being a disc jockey over the P.A. and for noon hour dances. (J-S)

AREA: Reinforcement Activities
LEVEL: PIJS
SOURCE: Provided by Dianne Seelman Gibson, LD Consultant, Keystone AEA #1
PROCEDURE: Below are listed a number of reinforcement suggestions applicable to elementary and secondary students.

REINFORCEMENT TECHNIQUES FOR STUDENTS

Elementary grades

Lead flag salute
Choose seat for specified time
Choose book to review for class
Select topic for group to discuss
Read to a friend
Right to tutor a slower classmate
Free time in the library
Be in a class play
Help teacher hand out papers, go to office, erase board, empty trash, dust off desks, sharpen pencils
Work at chalkboard
5 minutes to discuss something with teacher
Ask child what he would like to do
Plan a class trip
Plan a class project
Time to read aloud
Perform small duties
Select game or object for recess
Work puzzle (free time)
Draw, paint, work with clay, etc.
Choose group activity
Take a "good" note home to mom (arrange a reward with the mother)
Extend class recess by specified number of minutes
Play teacher
10 minute break to choose game and play with a friend -- QUIETLY
Class party
Use language master
Listen to record with earphones
See a filmstrip
Bring something special to show the class
Use radio with earphones
Have a "fun" movie
Dance in the gym
Use tape recorder
Work puzzle
Draw a picture
Paint with tempera
Build with construction blocks
Model with play dough
Candy
Dry cereal
Comic book
Chocolate instead of white milk
Accumulate points for purchasing doll clothes (funny money)
Marbles
Pencil
Eraser
"Hot Wheel" cars
Compliment
Smile approval

Secondary grades

Extra time for doing homework in class
Extra time in gym, home or room, shop, music room, etc.
Right to work independently on a special project for another class
Work in school office
Work in guidance office
Work in school library
Open discussion of social issues
Right to work as a tutor for elementary youngsters
Time to paint scenery for class play
Time for looking at own magazines
Class party
Have a "fun" movie (e.g. WC Fields)
Dismiss period early
Dismiss school early
Plan a special school function
Extra time for committees to meet
Time for club meetings
Dance in the gym
Time to practice something
Time to pursue a hobby at school
A class Coke break

Secondary grades -- continued

Time to interview local merchants for a class project
Right to sign up for or to "audit" an extra class(es)
Help teacher by making a visual aid for teacher to use with another group of students
Display good work
Pull the drapes for film showing
Carry a message to the office
Use of radio with earphones
Free time in student lounge
Name in the newspaper for special achievements other than grades
Work on school yearbook or newspaper
Write special article for school newspaper
Plan a class trip
Released time to work as a "candy-stripper" at local hospital
Released time to go to gym and shoot baskets

AREA: Reinforcement Survey
LEVEL: P,I
SOURCE: Unknown
PROCEDURE: This format is a sample of one survey that may be used to help a teacher identify a student's interests and needs so that meaningful reinforcers may be established.

REINFORCEMENTS

The teacher must identify reinforcers which are stronger than those which the client is receiving for his present undesirable behavior. For example, it may be more reinforcing for a client to have his friends laugh at him for his inappropriate remarks than to receive the teacher's praise for desirable academic behaviors. Similarly, it should be no shock to parents or school officials that being expelled from school is more reinforcing for some students than many of the activities the school offers.

Use interviews and forms. Determining effective reinforcers is a difficult process, but the best starting point is to ask the client what he enjoys.

What are some of the things you like to do?
When do you feel good about yourself?
Whom do you like to be with the most?

To determine reinforcers for young children, the teacher might ask them to name three wishes or to tell things they would like to take on a long trip to another planet. These questions take very little time to ask and often provide useful information. The counselor can determine by the child or client's enthusiasm whether the activity is reinforcing.

Mediator Reinforcement Blank

Name ______________________________

Date ______________________________

School ______________________________

1. My favorite grown-up (adult) is ______________________________

   What do you like to do with him? ______________________________

2. The best reward anybody can give me is ______________________________

3. My favorite school subject is ______________________________

4. When I grow up I want to be ______________________________

5. Two things I like to do best are ______________________________

6. My favorite adult at school is ______________________________

7. When I do something well, my mother will ______________________________

8. I feel terrific when ______________________________

9. The way I get money is ______________________________

10. When I have money I like to ______________________________

11. When I'm in trouble my father ______________________________

12. Something I really want is ______________________________

13. If I had a chance, I sure would like to ______________________________

14. The person I like most to do something for me is ______________________

    How? ______________________________

15. The thing I like to do best with my brother or sister is ______________

    ____

16. The thing I do that bothers my teacher the most is ____________________

17. The weekend activity or entertainment I enjoy most is _________________

18. If I did better at school, I wish my teacher would ____________________

    ____

19. I will do almost anything to get ______________________________

20. It sure makes me mad when I can't ______________________________

21. When I am in trouble my mother ______________________________

22. My favorite friend in (town) is ______________________________

23. The things I like to do most with him or her is ____________________

24. The only person I will take advice from is ______________________________

25. Not counting my parents, a person I will do almost anything for is ______

    ____

26. I hate for my teacher to ______________________________

These questions are redundant so that the teacher can cross check the client's report. The number of times a client reports an event as being reinforcing also can serve as a clue to the potency of the reinforcer. Once the interview is completed, the counselor summarizes the results and asks the client to rank them in order of importance to him. The counselor may excuse some reinforcers because they are unavailable. For example, a child may want a mini-bike which the parents cannot afford. In other cases, the reinforcing activity cannot be arranged, e.g., a day off from school will likely be contrary to school policy (see characteristics of effective reinforcers later in this chapter).

Another approach which is especially effective is the "reinforcement menu". Here, the teacher provides the client with a list of items that he may choose from when he has performed a desired behavior. One example of a reinforcement menu is the Reinforcement Survey Schedule (Cautela and Kastenbaum, 1967, see Table 9). Events are listed in categories and the client can be asked to rate each event. Teachers can modify this scale or select specific items depending upon the age of the client and the type of situation he is in, i.e., reinforcers may differ for school and home settings.

AREA: Behavior Charting

PROCEDURE: The formats on the next few pages are samples of possible ways to chart student behavior. Teachers are encouraged to design formats which best suit the needs of their own classroom situations by modifying the formats given here.

BEHAVIOR ORIENTATION PROGRAM

(B.O.P.)

STUDENT'S NAME ______________________________ DATE: ____________________

AGE (Date of Birth) ______________________________ GRADE (Or Level) __________

BEHAVIORS TO BE INTERFERRED WITH	SUGGESTED TECHNIQUES
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.

BEHAVIORS TO BE PERMITTED	SUGGESTED HANDLING
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.

BEHAVIORS TO BE ENCOURAGED	SUGGESTED TECHNIQUES
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.

NAME: ______________________ BIRTHDATE: ______________

SCHOOL: ______________________ GRADE: ________ CLASS: ________

TEACHER: ______________________ SCHOOL YEAR: ______________

BEHAVIOR DOCUMENTATION

DATE	INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOR	TIME OF DAY	TALLIES	COMMENTS

BEHAVIORAL INTERVENTION CHART

STUDENT: ______________________ TEACHER: ______________________

BEHAVIOR: ____

CONSEQUENCE: ____

PRECEDENT VERBAL RESPONSE: ______________________________

ANTECEDENT VERBAL REPONSE: ______________________________

WEEK OF: ______________________

TIME	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY

COMMENTS:

BEHAVIOR CHECKLIST

NAME: ______________________ DATE: ______________________

	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
1. Come on time.					
2. Write neatly.					
3. Begin work right away.					
4. Don't complain.					
5. Follow instructions					
6. Make it possible for others to work.					
7. Work independently.					
8. Continue working until finished.					
9. Don't argue.					
10. ______________					

TOTAL __________

FROM: Peg Wiegering, LD teacher, Dubuque Schools

AREA: Monitoring Academic Work
LEVEL: PIJS
PROCEDURE: The following pages contain a variety of sample formats used by teachers to plan and monitor daily assignments for students.

DAILY ASSIGNMENTS

NAME: ______________________ WEEK: ______________________

Monday

1. ☐ ____
2. ☐ ____
3. ☐ ____
4. ☐ ____

Tuesday

1. ☐ ____
2. ☐ ____
3. ☐ ____
4. ☐ ____

Wednesday

1. ☐ ____
2. ☐ ____
3. ☐ ____
4. ☐ ____

Thursday

1. ☐ ____
2. ☐ ____
3. ☐ ____
4. ☐ ____

Friday

1. ☐
2. ☐
3. ☐
4. ☐

From: Linda Dolphin, LD Teacher, Dubuque

Note: Student or teacher fills in activities. Students "X" out the box as they complete the activity.

NAME: ______________________ CLASS TIME: ____________ CLASS TEACHER: ________________________

GRADE: ________________ WEEK OF: __________________

Activity	Outcome
Monday ☐ ________________ ☐ ________________ ☐ ________________ ☐ ________________	
Tuesday ☐ ________________ ☐ ________________ ☐ ________________ ☐ ________________	
Wednesday ☐ ________________ ☐ ________________ ☐ ________________ ☐ ________________	

	Activity	Outcome
Thursday		
☐		
☐		
☐		
☐		

Friday: Fun day if you have earned the points, otherwise see me for work in the learning center.

From: Nancy Ingvoldstad, LD Teacher, Dubuque Schools

DAILY ACCOMPLISHMENT SHEET

____
NAME

SUBJECT	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY

TEACHER'S SIGNATURE____________________ WEEK OF ____________________

SCHEDULE

*name*______________ *date*______________

8:30 *Morning Business*

complete/correct

1 9:00

2 9:45

Reading

Vocabulary Sentences

Skilpak

3 11:00 **behavior awareness**

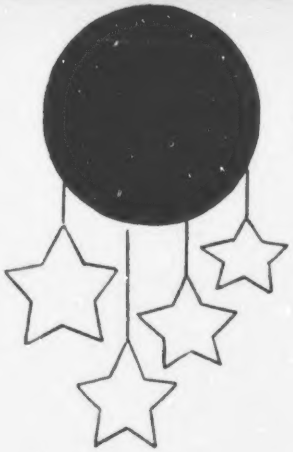
11:30 *Lunch/Recess*

4 12:20

5 1:00

2:05 *Recess*

6 2:25

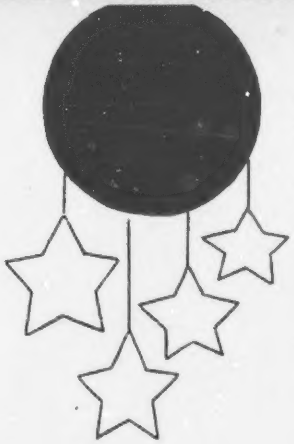


THINGS TO DO!

DATE ____________________

COMPLETED

1 ____ ☆
2 ____ ☆
3 ____ ☆
4 ____ ☆
5 ____ ☆
6 ____ ☆
7 ____ ☆
8 ____ ☆
9 ____ ☆
10 ____ ☆
11 ____ ☆



THINGS TO DO!

DATE ____________________

COMPLETED

1 ____ ☆
2 ____ ☆
3 ____ ☆
4 ____ ☆
5 ____ ☆
6 ____ ☆
7 ____ ☆
8 ____ ☆
9 ____ ☆
10 ____ ☆
11 ____ ☆

SCHEDULE

name ______________ date ________

1

______

Complete

2

______

Complete

3

______

Complete

4

______

Complete

5

______

Complete

6

______

Complete

TODAY'S ASSIGNMENTS

NAME ______________________________ DATE ______________________________

8:50 - 9:00 SILENT READING
9:00 - 9:05 MORNING BUSINESS
9:05 - 9:15 CLASS MEETING

1

____________________________________ ______
____________________________________ ______
____________________________________ ______
____________________________________ ______
____________________________________ ______

9:15 - 10:00

10:00 - 10:10

10:10 - 10:25 JOGGING

2

____________________________________ ______
____________________________________ ______
____________________________________ ______
____________________________________ ______
____________________________________ ______

10:30 - 11:15

11:15 - 12:20 LUNCH/RECESS

12:25 - 12:45 RELAXATION

12:45 - 12:55 STORY TIME

3

12:55 - 1:30

4

1:30 - 2:05

2:05 - 2:20 RECESS

5

2:25 - 3:00

STUDY
PERIOD

3:00 - 3:15

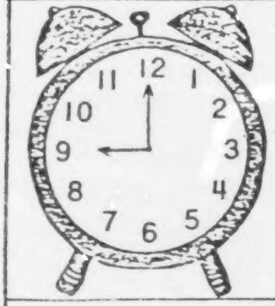
3:15 LOCKERS

3:25 DISMISSAL - WALK UP TO BUS

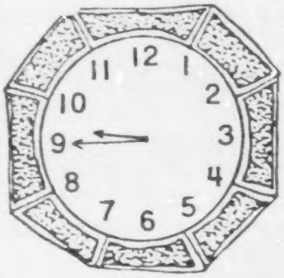
ASSIGNMENT SHEET

NAME______________________________ DATE______________________________

8:50 - 9:00 Class Business

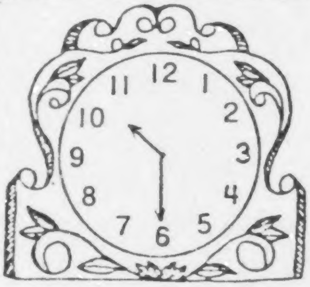

12
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11

9:00-
9:45
____
____
____
____


12
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11

9:45-
10:20
____
____
____
____

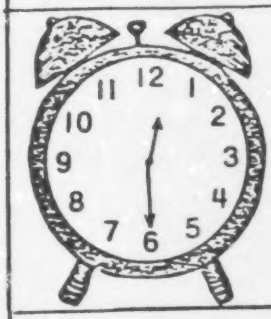
BREAK


12
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11

10:30-
11:30
____
____
____
____

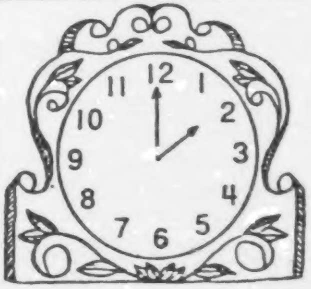
11:30 - 12:30 LUNCH

Return from Lunch


12
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11

12:30-
1:45

1:45 - 2:00 RECESS


12
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11

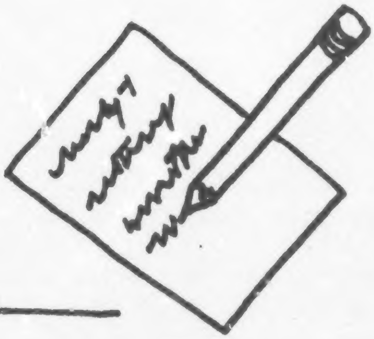
2:00-
3:00

DISMISSAL

Work To Do!

Name ____________

Date ____________



☐ ____________________

☐ ____________________

☐ ____________________

☐ ____________________

☐ ____________________

☐ ____________________

☐ ____________________

☐ ____________________

☐ ____________________

☐ ____________________

FROM: Pam Boland, LD Teacher, Dubuque

INDIVIDUAL WEEKLY PROGRAMMING PLAN

Lesson plan for ______________________________ Week of ______________________________

Subject 1 Subject 2

MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
WEEKLY OBJECTIVE				
WEEKLY OBJECTIVE				

Date____________________

ASSIGNMENT SHEET

Name____________________

Period	Course	Assignment	Teacher

Behaviors	Class Period						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Stayed in own area							
2. Appropriate questions/ appropriate time							
3. Stayed on task							
4. Positive peer interactions							
5. Accepted directions well							

Ratings: 1 = Below Average 2 = Average 3 = Above Average

Comments: ____

____

____

AREA: Contingency Contracting
SOURCE: Provided by Ellen McGinnis, ED Consultant, Grant Wood AEA
PROCEDURE: The following article and sample contracts provides an excellent overview of effective contingency contracting methods and rationale.

CONTINGENCY CONTRACTING

(A Form of Behavior Modification)

School failures do not "just happen". Like anything else, they have causes. For some time it has been customary to attribute school failure to such causes as "low intelligence", "poor motivation", "lack of interest", "emotional problems", "poor home life". Current research going on in public schools and experimental schools is convincingly demonstrating that school failures can be overcome by better teaching programs and the effective use of positive reinforcement to motivate children. One approach to the systematic use of reinforcement principles to motivate better learning is contingency contracting. The general procedure is deceptively simple: arrange the conditions so that the child gets to do something he wants to do following something you want him to do.

A basic rule of behavior is taught in a down-to-earth way. Behavior is strengthened or weakened depending on its consequences. In contingency contracting, the consequences are usually some other behaviors a child might like to engage in. However, this does not exhaust the ways in which reinforcing consequences can be systematically introduced in the classroom. There are variations on the procedures which may be more appropriate to one classroom than another. For example, instead of immediately following an academic task with a reinforcing activity or event, the teacher might give the children points, stars, or tickets which can be exchanged at some later time for a reinforcer.

Contingency contracting, is based on the systematic application of some generally accepted principles of human behavior. One of these principles is that a desired kind of behavior is more likely to recur if it is followed by some kind of reward each time it occurs.

Another underlying principle is that children can learn more willingly and satisfactorily if the framework within which learning takes place has been mutually agreed upon between teacher and student.

A teacher who uses contingency contracting makes an agreement or contract with his students under which he promises rewards in return for the desired learning behavior by the students. The method can be used at any grade level and with any subject. The method -- or variations of it -- has been applied successfully with normal children in regular public school classrooms, with children suffering from severe emotional disturbances, by parents within their own families, and in many other situations. As a matter of fact, the successes achieved with behavior management systems of this kind during the past few years have established it as one of the most significant developments of the twentieth century in applied psychology.

The educational background of the average teacher gives the prerequisites for understanding and using contingency contracting, regardless of the teacher's subject of specialization. The only factor at all likely to interfere with application of the method by an experienced teacher would be an unwillingness to try new methods that depart from the normal classroom routine.

One of the major problems educators and parents have faced throughout the ages has been that of motivating children to perform tasks, whose desirability was determined by these adults. Traditionally, negative contingencies have been favored to achieve this goal. In other words, the adult imposes a kind of "contract". The contract in this case takes the form: "As soon as you demonstrate that you have learned a little more, you may do something which is even more enjoyable".

Contracts of the latter kind are used every day, most obviously in the world of commercial and business enterprises. When one goes shopping, takes a job, or hires an employee, positive contingency contracts are implicit. In fact, with the exception of the legal system, whose approach is basically negative[1] our everyday life is largely run by positive contracts. Wherever such contracts meet the criteria of fairness and honesty, they fill important needs as bases for interpersonal relations. The purpose is to make the rules of contingency contracting explicit to those who work with people every day, especially those who work with children.

The principles and rules of positive contingency contracts can be used for the management of relationships between teachers and the children they are handling. Though the majority of parents and educators have, in fact, used these rules for countless generations, they have not been explicitly stated, nor have they been used consistently or systematically. The ultimate objective of behavioral motivation technology is shifting to self-management, so that the individual assumes responsibility for motivating his own behavior.

The reason for bringing up the "ultimate objectives" at this time is to reassure those teachers who may be dubious about the whole idea of motivation management. They may by saying to themselves, "Students should be motivated by a desire to succeed, not by the promise of a reward", or "This sounds like bribery to me". Or the teacher may be thinking, "If I apply contingency contracting systematically now, won't the child grow up expecting rewards for every little thing he does?" Although the writers of this program had similar concerns in the past, experiences have proven otherwise. Children who participate in a program of systematic contingency management turn out to be happy, eager-to-learn children for whom learning itself becomes one of the most rewarding experiences.

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[1] For example: "If you do not violate the law, you will not be punished". This statement can be converted into: "If you do violate the law, you will be punished", by removing the negatives from both sides. It does not, however, convert into "If you obey the law, you will be rewarded". This positive contract is neither implied logically, nor practiced in reality in criminal law.

In order to be worthwhile, the terms of a contingency contract must offer as a reward an experience which is (a) highly desirable and (b) not obtainable outside the conditions of the contract. If the terms on the student's side of the contract lead to such experiences, this will have one of two important effects: it will increase the probability that the students will perform the same activity in the future, or it will maintain in strength a behavior which is already strong. This will be true as long as the terms of the contract hold, and as long as the characteristics of desirability and attainability of the experience do not change. Of course, if the experience offered becomes less desirable, as it often does with time, or if the same experience will become attainable in other (easier) ways, the experience will lose its potential of having an effect on the student's performance. This characterization equates the experience offered in the contract with what is technically known as a reinforcer. A reinforcer in psychology is an event which, when it follows certain activities, increases the likelihood that these activities will recur.

Kinds of Reinforcers. There are many different kinds of reinforcers. Some reinforcers are characterized by the fact that they make it possible for an organism to engage himself in some desired activity. A person is more likely to perform a relatively boring and uninteresting task if the payoff is the opportunity to do something more interesting and entertaining. For example, fighting one's way through miles of holiday traffic is in itself not a very rewarding task. Still, thousands do this in order to visit relatives or friends. This kind of reinforcers, called reinforcing responses, are things one does, or likes to do.

Other reinforcers involve things that happen to someone. For example, on a camping trip, a man may exert a great amount of energy to chop wood and create a camp fire (task), especially if the weather is chilly. Getting warm by the fire (which happens to the person) will, in this case, serve as a reinforcer. Technically, reinforcing events of this case are called reinforcing stimuli.

In summary, several kinds of reinforcers can be found. The phrase reinforcing event is used rather than the more conventional "reinforcing stimulus" to refer to all of these. A reinforcer is sometimes most conveniently characterized by its stimulus characteristics. "Very good", as a stimulus, clearly functions as a reinforcer, regardless of our inability to specify what behavior it elicits. But sometimes a reinforcer is most conveniently characterized by its response characteristics. Sometimes both a reinforcer's stimulus and response properties are apparent. For example, the stimulus, "Let's play a game", together with the complex of stimuli and responses involved in playing the game, are all part of the reinforcement. The phrase "reinforcing event" is broad enough to include all of these possibilities.

The rules of contracting are not entirely unknown to the average teacher or parent, in fact, much of contingency contracting may be summed up in Grandma's Law, which states: "First clean up your plate, then you may have your dessert".

More formally and precisely, we can identify ten basic rules. The first five refer to the use of the reward in contracting, while the last five describe characteristics of proper contracting.

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Rule 1. The contract payoff (reward) should be immediate. It is of particular importance that this rule be observed early in the game when the child is just learning about contracting. Initial contracts (see Rule 2) should demand a small bit of behavior, then a progress check to see whether the behavior was executed to the contractor's specifications. Then the reward should be offered immediately. It is important that the presentation of the reinforcer be contingent only on the adequate performance of the behavior and not, for example, on the passage of time. Contracting will go well to the extent that the precision of the performance-reward relationship is respected.

Rule 2. Initial contracts should call for and reward small approximations. If the initial performance requested from the student is a small, simple-to-perform approximation to the final performance desired, no difficulties will be encountered. If, on the other hand, the performance requested is too precise, and too difficult for the student to perform, no amount of reward will help. In fact, the major things wrong with intuitive contingency contracting (as it sometimes occurs in everyday situations -- see Grandma's Law above) is that the intuitive contingency manager does not settle for small steps or approximations. The intuitive contract is likely to say, "Clean your room", rather than, "First, put your shoes in the closet". The intuitive contingency contract is likely to say, "Do all the arithmetic problems at the end of the chapter correctly, then you may watch a movie". The systematic motivation manager is more likely to say, "Do the first two problems correctly, then we will watch a movie for five minutes". The employer, when he is training a new employee, always has to reward approximations. If the new employee were to be rewarded only for expert performance at the start, he would never obtain the offered reward and would more than likely void the contract (i.e., leave the job).

Rule 3. Reward frequently with small amounts. Experience has shown (and there is considerable laboratory evidence to support this) that it is far more effective to give frequent, small reinforcements than a few large ones. As rule 2 indicates, this is of particular importance early in the game.

Rule 4. The contract should call for and reward accomplishment rather than obedience. Thus, the contract should say: "If you accomplish such and such, you will be rewarded with such and such", not, "If you do what I tell you to do, I will reward you with such and such". Reward for obedience leads only to continued dependence on the person to whom the child learns to be obedient.

Rule 5. Reward the performance after it occurs. At first glance, this is the most self-evident of all the rules; first some task behavior, then some reinforcing responses or reinforcing stimuli. The reader may be saying to himself by now, "Why, that's nothing but the old first work, then play rule". This is correct. But this suggests that the rule must be taken much more seriously than is usually the case. The difference in contingency management is that the "first work, then play" sequence does not occur just once, twice, or three times a day. The task and the reinforcing events are broken down into small components, so that the sequence will occur dozens of times each day.

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It is striking to note, when one begins to observe the order of events, how frequently the order is reversed. For example, "Just one more game of cards" (a reinforcing activity), "Then you've got to do your homework" (a task event). Or, "Stop watching television" (a reinforcing event), "And carry out this trash" (a task event). The examples illustrate that these events do not, by themselves, automatically get broken down into small units and arranged in the correct order. That is the purpose of this, to demonstrate the method of correctly managing contingencies.

Rule 6. The contract must be fair. This rule simply means that the terms of the contract, on both sides of the agreement ("If you will do X, I will do Y"), must be of relatively equal weight. Imagine a contract, for example, in which a teacher says to the student, "If you get all A's throughout the school year, I will take you to the movies". This kind of a contract could hardly be called fair. On the other hand, the teacher's saying, "If you sit quietly for two minutes, I will take you to the movies", would also be an unbalanced contract. In this case, the weight of what is offered by the initiator of the contract could be immensely greater than the weight of the behavior demanded by the contract. In general, one must try to relate the amount of reward to the amount of performance.

Teachers (and parents) sometimes feel uncomfortable with rewarding the students "for what they should be doing anyway". It seems to be somehow immoral to reward today's child for doing assignments that earlier generations had to do "or else". But the fact is that children learn better, and more willingly, if reinforcers follow difficult activities. We wouldn't say today's children should not get better dental care than their parents had. All schools provide some activities and objects for their children primarily because of their fun value. The crucial difference is in the time sequence of offering them.

Rule 7. The terms of the contract must be clear. This means that the terms on both sides of the agreement must be explicitly stated. For example, an unclear contract would say, "Do a few arithmetic problems and then we will do something more interesting". A more clearly stated contract would say, "Do ten arithmetic problems correctly and then we will watch the first four minutes of this Popeye cartoon". The child must always know how much performance is expected of him and what he can expect as a payoff.

Rule 8. The contract must be honest. An honest contract is one which is (a) carried out immediately, and (b) carried out according to the terms specified in the contract.

Rule 9. The contract must be positive. An appropriate contract should not say, "I will not do X, if you will do Y". The terms of the contract should contribute something to the child's experience, rather than take something away from him. Note that often contracts used in the school and in the home are implicitly of a negative type. E.g., "Behave as I tell you" implies "You will not get punished if you behave as I tell you". The outstanding characteristic of negative contracting is that it involves a threat of punishment.

Rule 10. Contracting as a method must be used systematically. Perhaps the most difficult thing to learn about the laws of contingency is that they go on working all the time, whether one pays any attention to them or not. That is to say, these laws do not hold only during arithmetic period or the reading lesson, or only during school hours, for that matter. A reinforcement following a bit of behavior will strengthen that behavior whether or not it occurs during school hours. As one becomes familiar with contingency management procedures one might ask, "What is the payoff for the child?" for almost every behavior requested of the child.

Once contracting has been established as a motivation-management procedure, it should be maintained, and care should be taken not to reward undesirable acts. Remember, the best way to eliminate unwanted behaviors is to make certain that they are never reinforced in any way; instead, see to it that in the same situation some other behavior is reinforced, which is itself incompatible with the undesirable behavior.

What is the payoff for the parent or teacher? The parents and teachers now using these rules in their management of child motivation find that children are eager to perform under these conditions. These children do not show the timid or aggressive traits of children performing under duress and coercion. Nor do they exhibit the demanding and "spoiled" characteristics of those who are used to receiving unearned benefits. There is a kind of joy in their activities; they seem to have a feeling of delight in their willing and conscious accomplishment and their well deserved rewards. Observing and participating in this kind of learning is, in turn, the greatest reward teachers or parents can experience.

The Setting of the Contract Situation. The kinds of tasks the teacher may want a student to perform can range from simply "paying attention" to a demonstration, to performing workbook exercises, or presenting something in front of the class. The topics may range from arithmetic to physical education. Regardless of the subject matter, or the particular tasks to be performed, there usually will be something else which the student or students would much prefer to do. In view of this, the first steps of motivation management are (a) specifying the task (i.e., something the student has to do), and (b) identifying an appropriate reinforcer (i.e., something the student would rather do). It must be remembered that a reinforcing event may be any desirable change in the student's environment. The motivation manager must identify those student-desired changes which are also acceptable in the classroom situation.

Establishing the Contract. The contract must be stated in simple language, easily understood by the student. The occasion may dictate different ways of wording a particular contract, but in each case the terms of the contract will fit the paradigm, "If first you do X, then you may do (or will get) Y". The term you, in this paradigm, may refer to an individual student or a group of students. It is possible to reinforce the group as a whole for certain accomplishments. However, because of individual differences such as rate of progress through learning material, degree of motivation, and the kind of reward that is reinforcing in any particular situation, it is easier and more desirable to establish individual contracts with students.

This, of course, implies a need for the preparation of individual task assignments. The important thing is to establish contracts with specifiable amounts of work for each student, to determine their success in completing these assignments and to reinforce their successful completion by some appropriate reward. Exactly what rewards are used depends a great deal on the teacher's observation of the student.

It is crucial that (a) the amount of work required and the criteria of its completion be specified, (b) the amount of reinforcement be specified, and (c) there be some clear indication of the beginning and end of tasks as well as of reinforcer.

The RE Area. One way of emphasizing the separation of the task from the reinforcement is to assign a place for task events, and another place for reinforcing events. When this is done, it is customary to refer to the area in which the reinforcements are given as a "reinforcing event area" or, more simply, the RE Area. Whether it is essential to have the RE area geographically separated from the Task Area is not known at the present time.

Contracting in the Classroom. If there is one predictable reaction to a description of the contingency management system, it is this: "I can see how contingency contracting might work fine with individual students, but how do I handle a whole class at once?" The teacher may be asking how she can get 30 students to do the same thing at the same time and reinforce them all with the same activity. One of the main points of this section is to point out that this is not only an almost impossible task - it is unnecessary. There are three reasons for considering it almost impossible: (a) not all students need the same amount of work in the same subject area; (b) although there are exceptions to this, not all students find the same events reinforcing; (c) most important, not all students finish the assigned task at the same time, therefore, the reinforcement could not be made contingent on two events: finishing the task and waiting for the other students to finish. This means that what would actually be reinforced would probably be sitting quietly and waiting. This is not a bad task, but it is not the task which was intended to be reinforced.

An alternative to group instruction is, of course, individual instruction. As stated before, to implement individual instruction, programmed materials are convenient, though not essential ingredients. Contingency contracting, with specified amounts of tasks and reinforcers, appears to be the ultimate achievement in the methods of individual instruction today.

It should be added that contracting with each student on an individual basis is much easier than it sounds.

An RE Menu. For technical as well as practical reasons, it is convenient and efficient to have a "Reinforcing Event Menu" which lists a wide variety of available events that reinforce the students in the group.

The student may be allowed to choose from the menu before his task is begun or upon completion of each task. The RE menu may be updated in accordance with the student's suggestions.

Progress Checks. Progress checks are perhaps the single most important and valuable component of the contingency contracting system. First, they provide the teacher with clear indicators of the student's completion of a task assignment; if the student cannot pass the progress test, he has not yet completed his part of the contract. Second, progress checks indicate to the student when his task is finished. This, and perhaps most important, passing a progress check leads to immediate desirable consequences. By being associated with reinforcement, the knowledge of having been correct and having successfully passed a milestone in the instructional process becomes reinforcing in itself.

Types of Contingency Contracting. Positive contingency contracts may be of three basic types, depending on whether the terms of the contract are determined by a manager, the student himself, or, in a number of transitional possibilities, by both of these.

So far, we have discussed the forms of contracting which are involved in manager-controlled contracts. In these contracts, the amounts of the task event required and the reinforcing event offered are determined by a manager, who may be a parent, a teacher, or someone else in a position to deliver rewards for accomplishment. This kind of contracting is very different from what might be called the student-controlled contract.

In student-controlled contracts, both the amount of task and the amount of reinforcement are determined by the student himself. The aim of the contingency contracting system is this: to lead the student from the manager-controlled contracting method. This may be accomplished by a transition through five levels, which might be called transitional contracting.

Level One: Manger-Controlled Contracting

In the manger-controlled contracting system, the procedural steps are as follows:

Step 1. The manager determines the amount of reinforcement to be given.

Step 2. The manager determines the amount of task to be required.

Step 3. The manager presents this contract to the student.

Step 4. The student accepts the contract and performs the task.

Step 5. The manager delivers the reward.

In the student-controlled contracting situation, the procedure is similar to the one described above. The difference is that the student replaces the manager. The student himself determines the amount of the reinforcement and the amount of the task, agrees to his own contract, performs the task, and delivers the reinforcement to himself. In transitional contracts, both the manager and the student are involved in determining the terms of the contract.

The ultimate goal of contingency contracting can now be redefined as getting the student ready to both establish and fulfill his own contracts, and to reinforce himself for doing so. Having had such practice in self-determination, the student becomes ready to take over full control and determine for himself the amounts of both reinforcements and tasks. Through these transitional procedures, we arrive at a point where the student is capable of making his own contracts, determining his own tasks, and determining his own reinforcements. At this stage, it is expected that the individual can maintain motivational independence by using contingency management as a procedure for systematic self-management.

Recognizing Malfunctions

A student fails in the classroom because the motivational system fails, not because the student is "stupid" or "bad". The teacher should note how each student is responding to the contingency contracting system. When one or more of the following symptoms is observed, the contract should be revised or altered.

1. Unfinished assignments
2. Complaining
3. Excessive dawdling
4. Talking and wasting time
5. Looking at the clock excessively
6. Inattention to instructions or details
7. Failure to pass more than two progress checks in one subject area

Students exhibiting any of the above listed behaviors probably require special attention, and their contracts should be adjusted.

Methods of Remedying Malfunctions: Revising the Contract

There are two ways of revising the contract -- it can be lengthened or shortened, depending on the teacher's diagnosis of it malfunction.

Lengthening the Contract. When the student finished all of his tasks before the expected time, the contract is probably too short. The student should receive the full benefit of the extra free time as a reinforcement for finishing his contract, but on the next day the contract may be lengthened by adding more tasks and REs. The student should be made to feel that this is reinforcing and that he has achieved a new status.

Of course, the same effect can be achieved by making the tasks within the contract more difficult, as by adding more tasks on the same level.

Shortening the Contract. When the student consistently fails to finish his contract for the day in the allotted time, the contract should be shortened. Tasks should be gradually and systematically deleted from each of the subject areas, or the tasks within the contract can be simplified.

If this system is not successful, the teacher is probably not using the REs most appealing to that particular student. The situation then should be reexamined, and REs should be introduced that will motivate the student to finish his contract in the allotted time.

The information in this handout has been taken from the book, How to Use Contingency Contracting in the Classroom, by Lloyd Homme, Research Press, Post Office Box 2459, Station A, Champaign, Illinois, 61820; 1970.

Other suggested references:

Modifying Classroom Behavior by Nancy Buckley and Hill M. Walker, Research Press, Champaign, Illinois, 61820; 1970.

Student Mediation and Classroom Mangement by John Neisworth, Stanley Deno, Joseph Jenkins; Behavior Techniques Inc., Post Office Box 335, Newark, Delaware.

The Anlaysis of Human Operant Behavior by Ellen P. Reese; William C. Brown Company Publishers, Dubuque, Iowa; 1966.

Bear with it...

You can do it...

I WILL TRY TO ______________________________

____

____
STUDENT'S SIGNATURE

I WILL TRY TO ______________________________

____

Good Behavior Contract

I WILL TRY
TO BE MORE
PATIENT WHEN____

____

____

SIGNED ______________________________
STUDENT'S SIGNATURE

I WILL TRY TO HELP

________________________ BY ________________________

____

SIGNED ______________________________
TEACHER'S SIGNATURE

I'M PROUD OF ____________________

FOR TRYING SOMETHING NEW.

____________________ IS LEARNING

____

____

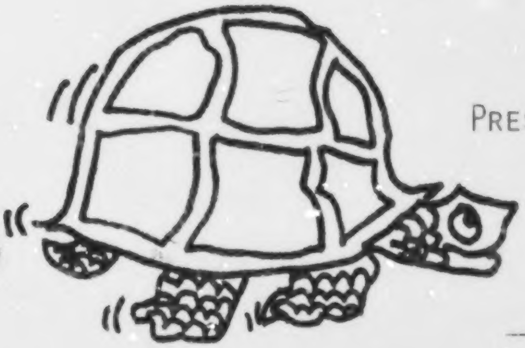
____

____________________ ____________

TEACHER DATE

---

the CAREFUL WORKER AWARD



PRESENTED TO ____________________

FOR ____________________

____

____________________ ____________

TEACHER DATE

BY THE WAY, DON'T FORGET TO TELL

____

THAT ________________ IS DOING A

GREAT JOB OF ____________________

____

____

FOR THE PAST ________ DAYS!

I HAVE SOME GREAT NEWS TO TELL YOU!

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

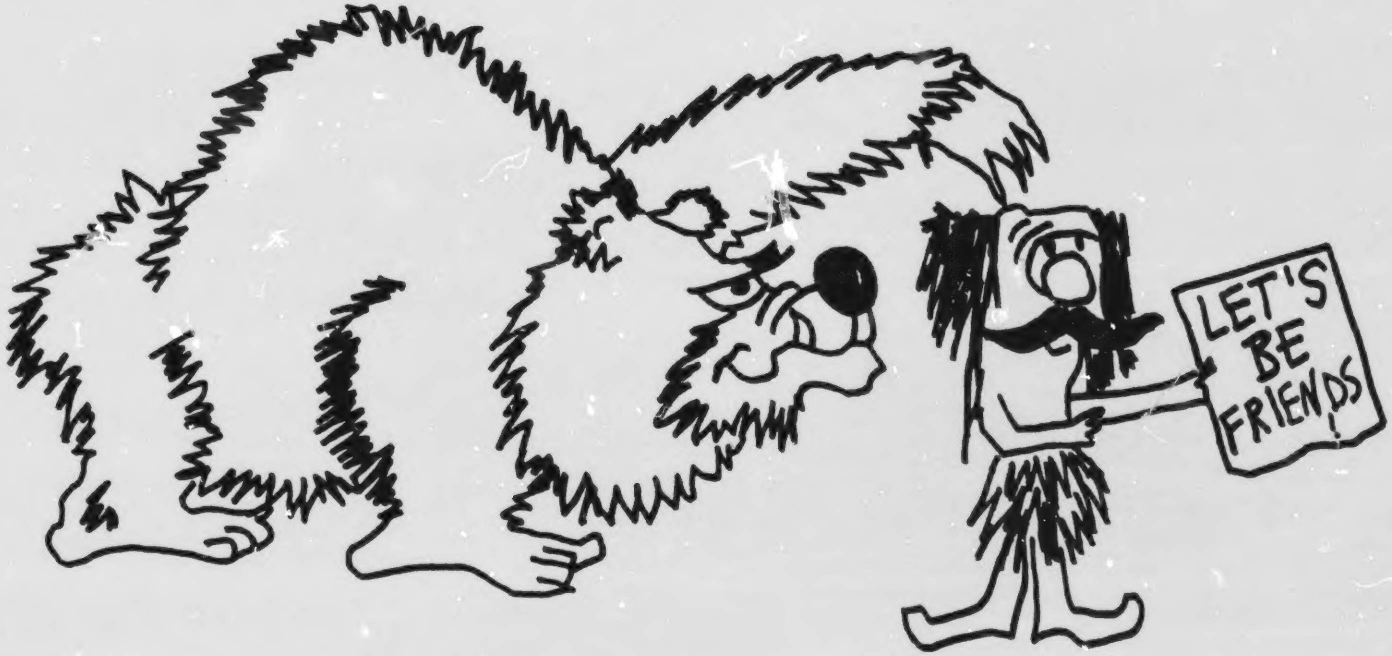
DATE

JUDGE'S SPECIAL AWARD

To

For

DATE


LET'S BE FRIENDS!

Outstanding CITIZEN AWARD..

To ____________________ For
Making ____________________ A
Better Place To Be.

____
DATE

____
TEACHER'S SIGNATURE

THE

"GIT" award

(GOT IT TOGETHER)

PRESENTED TO ______________________________

FOR: ______________________________

____

TEACHER ______________________

WITNESS ______________________

DATE ______________________

PROVISIONAL PLACEMENT CONTRACT

This agreement is necessary since ______________________ (student's name) an LD/BD class student, has not completely met goals deemed necessary for him to return to the regular class. Goals still needing improvement are:

____

____

____

____

This contract offers the opportunity for ______________________ student's name to demonstrate the ability to meet these goals in the regular classroom. It is understood that should the student be unable to meet these goals any time during the first quarter of the ______________________ school term that he should be returned to the LD/BD Class.

I feel these goals are fair and reasonable.

____
(LD/BD teacher)

I realize I have to prove myself during the ____________________ school quarter.

____
(student)

As the parent or guardian of ______________________, I understand the terms of this contract.

____
(parent/guardian)

____
(principal)

____
(director)

AREA: Managing Disruptive Behavior
LEVEL: PIJS
SOURCE: *Instructor*, November, 1980
PROCEDURE: The following article suggests some immediate tactics for coping with impulsive behaviors. The techniques may be particularly useful for general education teachers handling ED students in mainstreamed classes.

HOW DO YOU HANDLE STUDENTS WHO BLOW UP AT THE LEAST PROVOCATION?

by Merril Harris

"Hey," Harriet called to me in the hall, "I hear you're the lucky one who's got William."

"Yeah," I replied. "I don't know who he is, but I hear he has a really short fuse."

"Watch out," Harriet warned. "I wouldn't want him."

The first week was a honeymoon. What was Harriet so excited about? William was fine. But I gloated too soon. The following Monday he had a fight with Dave and broke the world globe over Dave's head. William fell out of his chair several times during the day, and he had two screaming-kicking tantrums. By the end of that week I felt as though I had used up all of my tricks--and patience. But I trudged ahead and by the end of that year, I had come to understand and cope with William's outbursts. But believe me, it wasn't easy.

From this experience I learned that outbrusts are explosions of behavior that can take the form of screaming, crying, verbal abuse, physical abuse of self or others, or destructiveness to property. Any child can have them, but they occur more frequently among the special-needs group to which William belonged. I also discovered that the number of incidents per child may increase with the severity of a disability. For example, the need to use outbursts as a means of expressing frustration seems to increase with a corresponding lack of verbal ability.

It is important for teachers to learn how to handle explosive situations effectively. While moving toward an exploding student, try to answer the following questions:

1. What is the child doing that's disruptive?

2. Why do I think the child is doing this?

3. What am I going to do about it?

To identify the child's disruptive behavior is easy enough. But the last two questions require some highly sophisticated decision making. Outbursts occur for a number of reasons, and each reason demands different strategies for correction. Following are some major reasons why children exhibit short fuses and some suggestions on how to deal with each problem. In each case, unless the explosive child is violent allow him or her to complete a tantrum before you react to it. This is important because until all anger and frustration are released, the child cannot deal rationally with the outburst.

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FOR ATTENTION

Everyone needs attention. It is natural and normal and makes us the social creatures we are. Many teachers tend to ignore attention-getting outbursts, believing that if they acknowledge them, they will reinforce negative behavior. But withholding attention violates a basic human need. When a child explodes mainly for the attention that the behavior brings, it is not helpful to ignore him or her without explaining why and without offering alternatives to the behavior. We cannot expect any child, especially one under stress, to mind read what we want. Once the tantrum has been completed, tell the child clearly: "I don't like it when you kick your chair," (or other unacceptable behavior). "If you want attention you can help me erase the board," (or other alternative). In this way you are explaining the behavior you do not like and offering an alternative. You may not always be able to promise immediate attention to a child. In this case, there is nothing wrong with explaining that you are busy but that you will be able to give him or her attention in a few minutes. Just don't forget to keep your promise.

TO MANIPULATE

We all like to have things done our own way. And some children have discovered that temper tantrums can help them achieve this. The first rule in dealing with this problem is not to give in. After the child has calmed down from such a tantrum, discuss his or her demands and try to reach an acceptable compromise. If the child's demands are unreasonable and frequent, locate an area in your school where the tantrum thrower can go (accompanied by an aide or school support person). When he is through, he may return to class. In this way, you are allowing expression of anger, but not giving in to unreasonable demands. More often than not, the child will lose interest in tantrum throwing because it no longer serves as a good manipulative device.

OUT OF FRUSTRATION

Some children have such low frustration tolerance that they may fly out of control if they are hungry, tired, sick, allergic, having a hard time with class work, having problems at home, or under social pressure at school. Others have so much anger and frustration penned up inside, for one reason or another, that when they finally explode, their behavior is truly beyond control. In either case, the children's tantrums are communications about their anger, their frustrations, and their need for help. Such children need to have controls given, their communication acknowledged, the situation clarified for them, and alternatives given.

Here is a step-by-step plan:

1. Control the child. Once the outburst has reached its peak, put your hand on his shoulder and say, "You can stop now," or "You don't have to shout."

2. Acknowledge the communication. "I can see you are very angry," or "I understand you are unhappy."

3. Clarify the situation and define the reaction. "Paul insulted you so you hit him," or "You are too hot and can't do your work."

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4. Help the student relax. Teach the child to breathe in and out slowly to the count of five, concentrating on the feeling of air moving in and out of the nostrils while the chest and diaphragm expand and contract. As the child breathes, tell her when her muscles are tense and when they are relaxed: "No, Debbie, that's not relaxing. Your shoulders are tense. Think about your breathing, in and out, in and out, and let your body go loose -- there, good, now you're relaxing."

5. Give alternatives to behavior, "You can stamp your foot/tell her you're angry/sit by the fan."

6. Help the child maintain controls by structuring consequences for action. "If you continue to do that, you will have to leave."

7. Follow through on consequences in a firm, but not vindictive, way.

8. Offer support and reassurance for the future. "Next time maybe you won't have to shout," or "We can still be friends."

9. Maintain self-control, dignity, and politeness.

10. Avoid personalizing (the child is not out to get you), arguing, value judgements (i.e., "That's bad," rather "I don't like that"), helpless positioning (i.e., "You can't" pushes a child to assert power, "please don't" is more effective), expecting rational communication from the child before he or she has gained control.

Children who explode to the point of violence toward themselves, others, or property must have controls imposed on them during their tantrums. Besides preventing obvious physical damage, controls provide the student with the security of knowing that you, the adult in charge, will not let the child be destructive when out of control. This state is extremely frightening to the child. She or he may also feel very guilty and ashamed afterward. For these reasons, we, as teachers, have a responsibility to the explosive child to teach her or him self-control and to impose teacher controls -- like the ones we just discussed -- until this has been accomplished.

The only way to realistically deal with uncontrollable physical violence is to use physical restraint. This can be very difficult to do well. First of all there is the very real possibility that you could get hurt -- kicks, bites, and scratches damage the body. Then, too, you have to contain your own anger -- not personalize the struggle -- and control the impulse to strike back or to control the child through pain. You must restrain the student as gently as possible, not to punish the child but to keep everyone safe. Restraining the child from behind is most effective. Acknowledging that you are probably much stronger than a child, move in quickly and pull the child's back against your body. If possible, sit down, either in a chair or on the floor, with your back against something, and lift the child onto your lap. Holding the child's arms behind her or his back at the elbows will make it impossible to scratch and hit; you can use your legs to restrain the child's legs from kicking. (Watch out for the battering-ram head, though.)

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"CONTROLLING ANGER DOES NOT MEAN THAT WE MUST EXTINGUISH THE EMOTION."

If the child is too big to restrain in this way, you can place him or her on the floor on the stomach or side, arms pinned behind. To avoid kicking feet, pin them down with your own legs, or get another teacher to help.

Now you will need to work at relaxing the child. Verbally calm the child; guide her or him through the breath control exercise. Then as the chid gains control, loosen your hold slowly, but be ready to tighten up again if the child tenses.

Once you become familiar with the behavior patterns of an explosive child, you can anticipate outbursts and help the child to stop a tantrum before it starts. This can be done most easily through verbal direction, such as: "Carl, I think that you are getting frustrated/angry/edgy. Stop what you are doing. Concentrate on your breathing, relax your body, move slowly." Then direct the child to resume activity when she or he is calm.

While handling a situation with an explosive child, the other children in the class are usually very quiet and attentive -- they want to see what you will do and how you will deal with the situation. This is all the more reason to handle an explosion with care. Some children may become frightened by disruptive outbursts. If this occurs, discuss personal explosiveness openly and honestly with the entire class. Describe it as one of many difficulties that a person could have and encourage the children to be helpful and supportive of children with the problem.

Controlling anger does not mean that we must extinguish the emotion. Anger and frustration are very real feelings, and we must grant to others and to ourselves the right to feel the way we feel. But we must learn to exhibit these emotions in safe, nondisruptive ways.

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AREA: Discipline Techniques - Response Cost
SOURCE: Excerpt from Teaching Strategies for Children in Conflict

RESPONSE COST

Response Cost requires the child to forfeit a positive reinforcer that he has in his posession. Response cost, point loss, or a fine is often used in token programs. Response cost, in contrast to extinction, involves the removal of a reinforcer already in the child's possession; extinction involves no longer reinforcing behavior that was reinforced previously. The purpose of response cost is not punitive; it is to suggest to the child that he or she has responsibilities.

Table 3-4 (Broden et al., 1970) illustrates the concepts of response cost for classroom application. The "spend points" comprise activities and privileges suggested by the pupils when they were asked what they would like to do in their free time. Other spend points were recommended by the teacher. Spend points are assigned so that behaviors thought to be highly desired are more costly than less desired ones. The "minus points" section is comprised of undesirable pupil behaviors. Minus points are assigned values so that the most disruptive behaviors cost the most. Pupils who accumulate 20 or more minus points are required to stay after school. Minus points can also be bought off by earned points at a ratio of five points earned to one minus point.

In implementing a response cost procedure a teacher should remember:

1. To specify the behaviors that will result in loss of reinforcement.

2. To be careful to keep fines reasonable so that the persons being fined will not lose all the reinforcement available to them.

3. To take away the reinforcers without displaying disapproval or anger. Reinforcers should be taken away matter-of-factly as in carrying out any agreed-upon contingency. (Some persons have managed to reduce emotionalism by merely designating certain behaviors such as fighting and arguing as behaviors a person may freely engage in but which are relatively costly and must be paid for just as are other reinforcing events.)

Overall, in a classroom, it would seem that if a child were allowed to engage in undesired behavior repeatedly. Other children would view the teacher's nonreaction as a sign that engaging in such a behavior is permissible. There is considerable evidence indicating the effectiveness of punishment in weakening or suppressing a response (Hall et al., 1972). However, in order for the teacher to avoid negative side effects the technique of punishment should be used sparingly. A teacher who frequently uses punishment becomes a less effective modifier because he or she loses positive reinforcement value and control weakens through punishment as the child adapts to being punished. In order to use punishment effectively in the class the teacher must: (1) make certain the child knows why he or she is being punished, (2) reinforce the child for behaviors incompatible with the one(s) weakened, (3) provide an alternative means of receiving positive reinforcement, and (4) punish matter-of-factly and with maximum intensity at the initiation of a behavior rather than at its completion. When using a punishment procedure, care must be taken to ensure that the aversive consequences are, in fact, unpleasant.

Table 3-4. Response cost in token reinforcement system (junior high school)

Points That Can Be Earned	Minus Points	Spend Points
5 - Completing assignment	5 - Swearing	500 - Weekly field trip
5 - Staying in seat	1 - Talking out of turn, hand not raised	10 - Extra assignment
5 - Begin work on time	50 - Throwing objects	50 - Fruit drinks
5 - Raising hand when asking question from teacher	10 - Ten points per minute removed for length of inappropriate behavior	100 - Extra recess time
10 - Tutoring another student	20 - Arguing with teacher	300 - Permission to move desk
10 - 90% on assigned task	5 - Disturbing another student	20 - Free time activities (games, records, puzzles, etc.)
8 - 80% on assgined task		100 - Appointment with principal
7 - 70% on assigned task		
6 - 60% on assigned task		

Adapted from (Broden et al., 1970) pp. 341-349.

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SPECIFIC STUDENT MANAGEMENT

Defining Inappropriate Behaviors and Consequences

Student's Name: ______________________________________

______________________________ and I ______________________________ have discussed
(student) (teacher)

and concluded that the following behaviors need to be brought under control by the student.

Inappropriate Behaviors (sample list follows)

- Refusing instruction
- Talking out of turn
- Swearing
- Disruptive behavior

Interventions/Consequences

1) At the first sign of inappropriate behavior student will be notified that the behavior is being noticed, and a request is made that the student bring the behavior under control and resume doing the assigned class work.

2) At the second sign of an inappropriate behavior (or if initial behavior is not under control) teacher will ask the student to talk about the behavior. The teacher and student will attempt to bring the behavior under control.

3) Third step: If the student will not talk about the behavior (in Step #2) nor is there any indication that the behavior is being brought under control, the teacher will:

   Options - 1) Remove all work from student's desk.

   2) Direct student to time-out or cool-off area.

   At the completion of 1) or 2), the student produces a complete mediation essay.

   After the student discusses the inappropriate behavior and completes the mediation essay, the student can return to the class (if sent to time-out) or have returned his/her class work (if work was removed from student's desk).

4) Fourth step: If the student (at Step #3) refuses to sit quietly or go to time-out and/or goes to time-out but continues to behave in an inappropriate manner, the student will be told that the behavior must stop

within ___________ minute(s) and the mediation essay completed within ___________ minutes. The student will be notified that failure to comply will result in the student being sent home.

5) Fifth step: If the student refuses to comply with the directions in Step #4, the following steps are immediately taken:

   1) Student is told that his school day has ended.

   2) Parents are notified that their child is being sent home. In compliance with the understanding of this management, following are the options for getting the child home:

      - Teacher or aide would drive
      - Parents would pick up
      - City bus
      - Walking

   3) If the student should leave school other than by the way agreed upon, the parents would receive a second phone call to be notified of their child's action.

   4) If the student refuses to leave school when asked, and becomes disruptive, local officials will be called to take the student off school grounds. (See agreement sheet re this part.)

6) Student can return to school the next school day, but must be accompanied by a parent. Prior to the meeting, the student will complete the mediation essay.

The Behavioral Management Policy will remain in effect from _____________ to __________________. Revisions are optional. All revisions will only be made with the understanding and agreement of student, parent, and teacher.

AREA: Time-out
LEVEL: PIJS

INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

Time-out practices involve the removal of the opportunity to engage in reinforced behaviors. When properly used, Time-out may serve as an effective punishment procedure. In a broad sense, this removal may range from turning a chair away from the group, to excluding the child from the school setting.

In a number of schools, the Time-out practice includes isolating a student for a designated period of time in a separate room or structure which meets guidelines or size, light, etc. Such exclusions must be well-documented and handled according to prescribed procedures to which parents have agreed. Schools using Time-out structures are to adopt a Board Policy Statement on the acceptable use of the practice and inform teachers and community members of the policy. Without these preliminary steps, Time-out structures can be misunderstood and create a controversy.

The following section includes articles and suggestions which should be carefully reviewed prior to instituting any type of time-out practice. It is recommended that any special education teacher contemplating the use of Time-out should contact his or her Agency consultant prior to implementation of the plan to be assured that appropriate guidelines have been developed.

Issues to Consider in the Use of Physical Restraint and Time-Out Procedures

Carl R. Smith, Consultant
Emotional Disabilities/Chronically Disruptive
Iowa Department of Public Instruction

While recently previewing potential professional training films produced by Wediko Films of Boston, memories of my teaching days returned. These films depict a summer camp program for seriously behaviorally disordered youngsters. They vividly illustrate the use of physical restraint techniques with such children and the grueling passage a professional experiences when being with an out-of-control child during a time of physical restraint. These films also revived my memories of participating in such sessions while working within institutional settings. They also brought back that nagging question concerning whether such techniques really help a given child. During those times we were not particularly adept at keeping sufficient data to answer such questions!

One of the inherent weaknesses in trying to address the topic "Issues to Consider in the Use of Physical Restraint and Time-out Procedures" is that there are most likely disparate issues involved with physical restraint as opposed to time-out procedures. Physical restraint might be defined as forceably restraining a student who, in someone's estimation, is out-of-control; while time-out may be defined as a fairly specific behavioral intervention describing the placement of a student into a situation in which positive reinforcement possibilities are eliminated for a specified period of time.

Time limitations preclude the discussion of many of the important issues associated with this topic and those interested in pursuing these topics in more detail might review such sources as Wood and Lakin (1978), Gast and Nelson (1977) and Grayson, Kiraly and McKinnon (1979). I am going to attempt to provide an overall look at these issues which may err in the direction of oversimplifying a highly complex issue. For those wishing to have more specific guidelines, I am including examples of these in the appendices to this paper.

I have divided my discussion into three areas, although these areas do overlap. These are:

1) legal and administrative concerns,
2) best professional practices concerns, and
3) political concerns.

Legal and Administrative Concerns

To implement any procedures related to physical restraint and/or time-out without first reviewing the legal and administrative implications would be foolish. Those days of old when we could use various procedures to help "those poor disturbed children" and be accountable to few, especially if we worked in a residential program outside of the rubric of public education, are gone. And rightfully so.

Among the basic questions which we need to ask are: (1) Are the most closely located governing bodies, including the immediate administration, local school board and other consumers such as parents, aware of and approving of these procedures? (2) Are these procedures consistent with any state statutes governing the implementation of any such procedures? (3) Would these procedures appear "reasonable" if we were brought before the courts on a charge of "cruel and unusual punishment"? Caution is advised if you hesitate to answer in the affirmative to any of these questions.

At times we might prefer not to review physical restraint or time-out procedures with our local administration, board or parents because we believe that to do so might lead to unnecessary discussion and opposition. We may even be seduced into thinking, "Well, I'll go ahead and do what I know is necessary and hope nothing happens." Along with this we might even choose to ignore any state statutes, rules or guidelines because, after all, these are promulgated by those people so far away from the real world! However, I believe that unless you are following such external review procedures, you are placing both yourself and your program in jeopardy.

Another issue that is commonly held forth in legal and quasilegal settings revolves around the reasonableness of such approaches. Closely aligned to this would be the cries from critics that such procedures reflect cruel and unusual punishment.

We have every right to be humble in predicting what would be judged "cruel and unusual" in our courts. However, some of the self-questioning we could apply in anticipating such an accusation includes: (1) Have these proposed procedures been reviewed by other professionals? (2) Are these procedures consistent with current literature and research? (3) Can we show that these procedures are leading to improvement in an individual pupil's behavior (e.g. a reduction in the rate of those behaviors which most would judge inappropriate and offensive)? And (4) have preferable alternatives short of these procedures been attempted and proven unsuccessful?

Best Professional Practices Concerns

In addition to the legal/administrative concerns discussed above, there are also a number of "best practices" concerns which need to be addressed in the areas of physical restraint and time-out. Within our current litigation era we may tend to shove these concerns aside to be looked at "when we have time"

Carl Smith first presented this article at the 58th annual convention of the Council for Exceptional Children, held at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania on April 22, 1980.

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but to do so leads to delusions of adequacy based on weak professional foundations.

Recent research in human aggression has led to the empirical verification of two types of aggression: irritable and instrumental. As discussed by Baron (1977), the characteristics of each of these types of aggression is distinctive. In addition, it would seem that the appropriate interventions for each type will vary. In viewing the use of such procedures as time-out, it is important to keep in mind the qualitative characteristics of the behaviors with which such techniques will be used.

Another issue we need to keep in mind in the use of physical restraint and time-out is similar to the cautions which have been raised in the use of aversives generally. The raison de'tre of the effective use of aversive techniques is the pairing of such procedures with the reinforcement of desired behaviors to replace those behaviors which we are attempting to eliminate. We need to keep this paradigm in mind if we choose to employ such physical restraint and time-out procedures. In my mind you must pair such techniques with more systematic self-control techniques such as those advocated by Stan Fagen and others. It appears that the ultimate probability of a particular student leaving our specialized settings and returning to the regular class is highly contingent upon a transfer of control from our more external interventions to internal behavioral controls (Smith, White and Peterson, 1979).

We also need to be sure that the professionals using restraint and time-out techniques are thoroughly trained in the appropriate use of such techniques. The soundest techniques will go awry if used by incompetent professionals. Time-out, for example, is a procedure which, although defined quite specifically in the literature (see for example Walker, 1979), has seemed to have been used in many different ways (Grayson, Kiraly and McKinnon, 1978). So it is important that the person using such a technique is thoroughly trained in how to use such an approach and is professional enough to ask for assistance when things are not going well.

There is also a need to specify the types of behavior with which such techniques are used as well as the age of students with whom they are used. Physical restraint and time-out, for example, should never be used for minor infringements but rather should be reserved for more significant incidents. As Walker (1979) has pointed out, other less intensive interventions such as response cost should be used in the case of minor incidents.

The age of the pupils for whom such interventions are to be used should also be considered. I am skeptical regarding the use of physical restraint with youngsters older than elementary age. I question whether such techniques are worth the risks with these older pupils.

We also need to look at a description of the school setting in which these procedures are going to be used. There are a whole host of complicating variables involved with the implementation of physical restraint or time-out within a public school building which may not be relevant for a similar program operated within a residential treatment center. Among the issues to be considered here are:

- Where can time-out be implemented?
- What are the general consequences applied in the building for aggression?
- Can we afford to have standards which are quite different from the overall school?
- What support people are consistently available to the teacher to assist in times of crisis?

It seems naive to replicate an intervention strategy which has been demonstrated within a residential setting in our public schools if we have not taken into account the environmental differences between these settings.

Another major professional question we must ask is, "Does this intervention make a difference?" If we use time-out procedures to reduce certain noxious behaviors, we must document that such behaviors have, in fact, decreased in frequency. The same test must be applied to physical restraint interventions.

A final best practices issue deals with the involvement of parents in such procedures. It is important for parents of the children with whom such procedures are used to be aware of and approve of these procedures. If these procedures come under fire, as they have in our state recently, these parents can be our major supporters. In an article describing a public meeting held as the result of concern over such procedures used in Charles City, Iowa, the local paper Press, reported on March 27, 1980:

> Several parents maintained their children had benefited from the time-out room. One mother said her child was not very happy and complained about going to school but after being in Castle's (teacher) room, she really enjoyed school.

Political Concerns

A final area which deserves mention in discussing physical restraint and time-out procedures might be described as political concerns. The brevity of my coverage of this area should not be interpreted as the lack of importance of this area.

These political concerns include the information which must be provided to a community including the parents of handicapped and non-handicapped students, other teachers in our building and others regarding the purposes of these procedures. If we do not make efforts to inform these people, we are setting ourselves up for future problems. In my opinion this is a major contributing variable in those cases where time-out or physical restraint have been attacked within our state. As Bob McCauley (1977) states in a paper dealing with overall critical elements in programming:

> A program that is not accepted or favored by those groups with whom it relates is probably not going to last long. Public relations can be important to a program's growth, survival, or impact. A well-conceived program that does not attract advocates, outside support, or professional acceptance just will not survive, or be used effectively. (10)

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Conclusion

I have attempted in this paper to organize some thoughts related to the use of physical restraint and time-out in programs for the behaviorally disordered. Preparing this paper has reinforced my biases regarding the complex nature of this issue. Perhaps the most important professional challenge we face is to reject the seductively simplistic notion that there is a single answer to the questions raised around the use and non-use of these procedures. It is our charge to consider the various issues involved, and employ procedures which are defensible professionally and legally, and meet the criterion of "reasonableness" in the eyes of others.

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Appendix A

State of Indiana Draft Guidelines for Seclusion Time-Out

Some handicapped children may require special programming because they exhibit maladaptive or severely aggressive behaviors. The programs designed to modify maladaptive behaviors must emphasize the development of desirable and adaptive behaviors, rather than merely the elimination or suppression of undesirable behaviors. Goals relative to behavior management, like other aspects of a child's individualized educational program, must reflect evaluation and decision by the case conference committee. Methods used in behavior management must be designed so that the least restrictive means of managing are employed. In addition, special attention must be directed to assuring protection of the rights of the child.

Time-out from positive reinforcement has proven to be a popular and effective consequential technique for reducing the rate of inappropriate behavior. Although viewed as effective, time-out is potentially a highly aversive procedure if used improperly. There are specific issues that must be addressed prior to instituting time-out procedures because inappropriate usage could be considered abusive or ethically questionable.

In Indiana, current legal guidelines pertaining to the use of time-out procedures are vague; however, litigation from decisions rendered in Wyatt vs. Stickney, 344 F. Supp. 373 (M.D. Ald. 1972) and Morales vs. Turman, 383 F. Supp. 53 (E.D. Texas, 1974) are evidence that judicial monitoring of time-out and other behavioral management procedures is probable and possible. Accordingly, local education agencies should develop, implement, and monitor guidelines for using time-out procedures in classrooms and related educational settings.

Seclusion time-out procedures may be necessary for those behaviors for which milder forms of time-out are ineffective or not feasible. Such a situation exists when a student is so physically strong and behaviorally resistive that applications of contingency or exclusion procedures would endanger the physical well being of both that student, other students, or staff; or when a student displays such severe or skillful aggression that the behavior must be eliminated before severe damage occurs or appropriate behavior can be shaped. Seclusion time-out should be distinguished from exclusionary time-out techniques which involve ignoring, contingent observation and removal from reinforcing activities, and exclusion time-out from all reinforcement.

The student's case conference committee should prescribe the use of seclusion time-out for only those behaviors that warrant aversive procedures. It is strongly suggested that parent permission for the use of the seclusion time-out procedure be secured at the time the procedure is discussed. The behavioral prescription that guides and details the use of seclusion time-out should be implemented on an interim basis so that continuous evaluation is encouraged. The following guidelines should be considered to determine if the use of seclusion time-out procedures is appropriate:

1. The behaviors that will result in time-out should be explicitly stated. The statement should also identify the reinforcing situations that are maintaining the behavior.
2. The teacher or behavioral specialist should have documentation that the milder forms of time-out or other reduction techniques have proved ineffective in suppressing the inappropriate behavior.
3. The teacher or behavioral specialist should prepare a concise, written statement of procedures to be followed when placing a student in seclusion time-out.
4. If a seclusion time-out room is used, the room should be free of objects and fixtures with which children could harm themselves; be properly lighted and ventilated; and be at least six by six feet in size. The supervisor should be able to visually monitor all portions of the room, and the room should not be locked.
5. A staff member must be assigned to the area of the time-out room so that continuous visual and auditory monitoring occurs.
6. The student should be confined to the room only until he/she is calm and otherwise indicates responsiveness to social interaction. This time period should not exceed three to seven minutes.
7. Records should be kept of each occasion when seclusion time-out is used. The records should include:
   a. Student's name.
   b. A detailed account of the circumstances surrounding the episode and placement in time-out.
   c. The time of day the student was placed in and released from time-out.
   d. The total time in seclusion time-out.
   e. The student's behavior in time-out.
   f. The student's behavior after being released from time-out.
8. Differential reinforcement of more appropriate behavior must be included to accompany the use of seclusion time-out.
9. When a prescription for seclusion time-out is written, it is recommended that the student's program be examined for appropriateness. This review is encouraged because the need for this type of behavioral intervention could indicate that behavioral objectives, techniques, or other factors affecting the learning environment are not appropriately matched with the student's needs and behaviors.

Although the guidelines suggest a set of procedures to be used when seclusion time-out is

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implemented, they represent suggestions for only one technique existing among a broad range of behavioral techniques and procedures. It is suggested that guidelines pertaining to the implementation of other controversial procedures be developed. In addition, it is recommended that all personnel involved in designing and implementing behavioral management procedures be adequately trained, and monitored in such procedures. It is imperative that these persons have attained levels of skill and competency so that their qualifications correlate with their responsibilities.

Thanks to Cindy Jackson, Indiana Department of Public Instruction for furnishing this material.

Appendix B

Grant Wood Area Education Agency Position on Time-Out

Time-out is the removal of the opportunity to engage in reinforced behaviors. When properly used, time-out may serve as an effective punishment procedure. In a broad sense, this removal may range from turning a chair away from the group, to cornering, to moving a child to the hallway, to placing a student in an unlocked, secluded area, to closing him/her in a "time-out box," to excluding the child from school. It is "effective only if the classroom environment from which the child is removed is more reinforcing than the isolation area in which he is placed" (Rutherford, p. 53).

These policy guidelines for ethical and legal use of time-out are specifically for those systems that include exclusion of students for severe misbehavior into a time-out box or cabinet or room. They are drawn primarily from Gast and Nelson's recommendations printed first in *Exceptional Children* (April, 1977) and reprinted in *Iowa Perspective* (April, 1978, Carl R. Smith, ed.). A reprint of that article and other supporting materials follow.

Restrictions on the Use of Time-Out

1. Time-out should be used only for behaviors that are destructive of property, aggressive to others, or severely disruptive to the class environment. General non-compliance, self-stimulation, academic refusal, etc. can be responded to with less stringent and restrictive techniques.
2. The necessity of using physical force to place a student in time-out beyond that reasonably managed by the teacher is inappropriate in a public school classroom. Involuntary time-out must not be used with such students, and in general, time-out is not an appropriate intervention for classroom use with any students older than 12 unless they have made a contractual agreement for its use.
3. Time-out rooms must meet structural guidelines and provide an adult the means of continuously monitoring, visually and auditorially, the students' behavior (see Gast and Nelson, #6 a-f).
4. Time spent in time-out must be kept within these limits:
    a. No more than 5 minutes each exclusion - preschool.
    b. No more than 15 minutes each exclusion - lower elementary.
    c. No more than 20 minutes each exclusion - middle elementary.
    d. No more than 30 minutes each exclusion - upper elementary and up.
    e. No more than an average of one time daily after the first two weeks in the classroom.
5. Should a time-out period extend past these limits, a professional colleague should be immediately called in to help evaluate the appropriateness of continuing the time-out procedure. This may be the principal, counselor, an ED team member, or another AEA support staff person in the building.
6. Time-out shall be altered or discontinued as a behavior change technique if data do not support its effectiveness. An advisory committee consisting of the teacher, principal, ED team member, and parent should be called in to evaluate the appropriateness of using time-out as a consequence for misbehavior if its effect in suppressing the behavior is questionable.

Components of Appropriate Use of Time-Out

1. Time-out must be paired with a plan to provide positive reinforcement for appropriate behaviors. "A cardinal rule in the use of time-out is that a corresponding effort should be made by the teachers **to increase their level of positive interaction**" with the child when he/she is "behaving appropriately, **particularly** during the time the seclusion program is in effect." (Forness, p. 91)
2. A concise written statement of procedures to be followed whenever placing a student in time-out should be prepared as a classroom guide and individualized for each student for whom a time-out program is to be used. (See Gast and Nelson, #5 a-c, for specific suggestions.)
3. The IEP must include a statement of the time-out plan and the behavior goals for its use. Through the IEP process, parents will have knowledge of and opportunity to agree with both the use of time-out and the positive components of their child's management plan.

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4. Records must be kept of each occasion when time-out is implemented and should include those items listed by Gast and Nelson in recommendation #7.
5. Student participation in planning and carrying out his/her behavior management plan, including use of time-out, should be used to the maximum degree possible. (e.g. see Gast and Nelson, #5 c.)
6. Direct teaching of appropriate behaviors to be used in place of those punished by time-out should be included in the total behavior change program. Role playing, modeling and self-instruction techniques may be used in "debriefing" sessions following use of time-out.

Summary Comments

"A critical factor for the success of time-out appears to be the positive reinforcement available in the classroom. This procedure will only be effective if there is sufficient positive reinforcement available in the classroom so that removal from that setting, for no matter how short a time period, will be aversive to the child." (Rutherford, p. 54)

"Advantages and Disadvantages of Time-out. There is no question that time-out can be effective in controlling inappropriate/deviant child behavior. However, in the author's opinion, it should be used only as a last resort. There are several reasons for this. First, time-out removes the child from classroom activities and deprives him/her of the opportunity to engage in appropriate or productive behavior while in time-out. Secondly, time-out is an easily abused technique and its use must be supervised and monitored very carefully. Thirdly, when time-out is applied to nondisruptive, relatively innocuous classroom behaviors, it represents a form of overkill. Finally, other methods such as response cost are equally as effective as time-out, but are easier to manage and less subject to abuse." (Walker, p. 123)

These guidelines have been provided by Polly Arp, supervisor of emotional disabilities, Grant Wood AEA, Cedar Rapids, Iowa.

The Time-Out Procedure–A Clarification

by M. Catherine Grayson, John Kiraly, Jr.,
and Archie J. McKinnon

Abstract

This paper examines the literature for information about time-out procedures in an effort to clarify communication about the uses of the procedure in education. Three classes of definitions emerge: 1) a behavioral definition, 2) a cooling-off definition, and 3) an unspecified definition. These classes are defined and illustrated by case examples and steps for administering time-out procedures. This examination of the literature clarifies the uses of time-out procedures in education and relates the procedural differences to definition.

Introduction

The procedure "time-out," once used only in the psychologist's animal laboratory, has become familiar in the field of education. In the transfer from the laboratory to the classroom, problems related to the need for a common definition have occurred. When educators discuss "time-out" there is often confusion over the definition of the procedure under discussion. In an effort to discover common definition elements, a number of articles from both the psychological and educational fields were reviewed. Three classes of definition emerged from this review.

1) *Behavioral Definition:* Behavioral psychology views time-out as a procedure to reduce undesirable behaviors by withdrawing opportunities for reinforcement of the undesirable behavior. The following articles emphasize this definition: (Barton et al., 1970; Blackham & Silberman, 1971; Bostow & Bailey, 1969; Burchard & Barrera, 1972; Clark et al., 1973; Endres & Goke, 1973; Hawkins, 1971; Martin, 1975; Patterson & Buillion, 1971; Pendergrass, 1972; Tyler & Brown, 1967; Tymchuk, 1974; White et al., 1972).

2) *Cooling-Off Definition:* This concept of time-out comes from the "crisis intervention," (Morse, 1971) or "life space interview" (Redl, 1959) approach to behavior. When a student is experiencing stress in school, a time-out is used to help him/her cope with his/her problems, either alone or with a "helping adult" (teacher, psychologist, etc.). A number of authors discuss this definition (Bassin et al., 1976; Caplan, 1963; Glasser, 1974; Long, Morse, & Newman, 1976; Redl, 1959; Redl & Wattenberg, 1959).

3) *Unspecified Definition:* This definition combines the withdrawal of reinforcement, and problem sorting, of definitions 1 and 2 with adaptations. Examples are: delayed time-out (Ramp et al., 1971), classroom cornering (Forness, 1978), and social isolation (Drabman & Spitalnik, 1973).

This paper discusses each definition individually in an attempt to answer the question, "What is time-out?" and to inform teachers about time-out procedures.

Behavioral Definition

Time-out is based on the idea that if an individual is in a motivating environment, whether it is one that provides intrinsic motivation or one which provides external rewards, he/she will want to remain in that environment (Martin, 1975). Removal from that environment will cause the individual to exhibit behaviors which allow him/her to return and will cause him/her to avoid engaging in those behaviors which created the original removal. Thus, time-out is a procedure in which the occurrence of inappropriate behavior is followed by a period of time during which reinforcers are no longer available. This withdrawal of reinforcers is response contingent in that it only occurs after a particular inappropriate behavior has been exhibited.

Behaviorists view time-out as a mild form of punishment which involves withdrawing reinforcement in order to weaken a particular undesirable behavior (Tymchuk, 1974). An example of the steps needed to initiate and maintain such a procedure is described in the following example.

Chris, a 10-year-old boy in the fifth grade, disturbs others in the classroom, does not complete his assigned work and must have directions repeated over and over. He exhibits many behaviors his teacher would like to see eliminated but two behaviors in particular, (1) hitting other children and adults, and (2) tantruming when asked to do something he does not want to do, are the most disruptive and occur often enough to disturb the rest of the class and various classroom activities. His teacher decided to use time-out after reading that its use can decrease undesirable behaviors, particularly those falling in the acting-out category (Blackham & Silberman, 1971; Bostow & Bailey, 1969; Burchard & Barrera, 1972; Clark et al., 1973; Drabman & Spitalnik, 1973; Endres & Goke, 1973; Hawkins, 1971; Morris, 1976; Patterson & Guillion, 1971; Tyler & Brown, 1967; White et al., 1972). His teacher knew that one reason for the effectiveness of time-out was that it provided a consistent, clearly defined, structured management procedure that placed the teacher in a specific management role. She believed this role was compatible with her teaching style.

The teacher took the following steps to initiate and maintain a time-out program for Chris:

1) Baseline data: Before any changes were made, Chris was observed in a variety of settings and a frequency count was made of how often he engaged in the two target behaviors: hitting others and tantruming. The baseline data was needed to note decreases or increases in the occurrence of the two target behaviors. The baseline data also provided an evaluation guide for the teacher after the time-out procedure had been operated for a week or two. She was able to compare the frequency counts and note differences (Haring & Phillips, 1972).

2) The program is carefully explained to Chris. He is shown the time-out room and told, "Whenever you hit another child or adult, or whenever you tantrum, you will immediately be put in the time-out room for ___minutes. (Time should be as short as possible--3-5 minutes seems to be chosen most often.) After the time period is up you will be returned to the classroom." His teacher makes sure that Chris understands her since she will have no verbal exchange with him when he is being placed in time-out. She knows that time-out is effective

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because it provides a neutral situation that withdraws all reinforcement, and she realizes that talking to Chris may be reinforcing. His teacher makes all aspects of the situation clear and even writes some of them out for him. The conditions will be reviewed daily but never when Chris is acting out. For instance, a condition for removal from time-out is that Chris must stop tantruming. His teacher tells him, "After ___minutes, if you are still tantruming, you must remain in time-out until you stop."

3) Time-out will be applied immediately and consistently after each occurrence of the target behavior(s) and the time limits will always be held constant.

4) At the same time as the time-out procedure is initiated a positive reinforcement program will begin. When Chris is not hitting others or tantruming, he will be rewarded either by praise, points, etc. Rewards will vary based on the child's needs and parameters of the educational setting.

The actual time-out area will vary depending on physical limitations of the school setting. Not all teachers have an acceptable free room close by. The time-out area should be secluded and designated only for this purpose (many people use boxes, e.g., refrigerator shipping containers, closets, or an area surrounded by screens), devoid of all distractions and contact with others. There should be a small, one-way window or unobtrusive peephole so you can see the student. Remember the student is placed in a neutral area where reinforcers are removed and social isolation results. The time-out area should not arouse fear in the student, cause physical discomfort, or have the potential to cause injury.

After completing steps 1 through 4 and designating the time-out area, Chris' teacher is prepared to implement a time-out procedure. Later when Chris hits Tom, his teacher immediately escorts Chris to the time-out room without any conversation and avoiding eye contact. When the specified time period is up she opens the door and simply says, "You may return to your work." Nothing else is said about the situation and he is treated normally when he returns to the classroom. If he hits or tantrums within 30 seconds, or after 10 minutes, or 2 hours later, the same procedure will be repeated.

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of the time-out procedure, Chris' teacher can count the frequency of tantruming and/or hitting behaviors or she can just count the frequency of time-outs. If the procedure is effective, there should be a steady decrease in frequency of time outs and a decrease in hitting and tantruming behaviors. Teachers should be aware that researchers have found that the application of time-out to some inappropriate behaviors may result in an increased frequency of other inappropriate behaviors (Clark et al., 1973).

Time-out as a behavioral definition can be used with individuals of any age, and with a variety of populations (normal, retarded, autistic, emotionally disabled, etc.). It is most effective for decreasing specific inappropriate behaviors and is not designed to discover the underlying causes of these behaviors.

This section has illustrated the behavioral definition which has as its base the procedures used in studies from the field of operant conditioning. The next definition relates to an associated time-out concept, "cooling-off."

Cooling-Off Definition

The cooling-off definition emphasizes two features of time-out: (1) to decrease specific inappropriate behaviors, and (2) to provide an opportunity to understand the underlying emotions or feelings which cause the inappropriate behaviors. The frequency of an inappropriate behavior is decreased by working directly on the behavior, and exploring associated feelings while that behavior is occurring.

The cooling-off approach may require definition and observation of the specific target behaviors. These functions are not essential in this approach. In the cooling-off approach, the student can voluntarily use time-out when he/she wants or needs a less stimulating environment or has an emotional outburst. In the behavioral approach, time-out is reserved for one or two specific behaviors whose frequency and duration are carefully recorded.

Another difference is that in the behavioral approach all management in the situation is external. The teacher makes all the decisions without any student input. In the cooling-off approach a large part of the management in the situation is shared, as the pupil is involved in the decision making with the teacher.

This approach is used almost exclusively with "acting-out" behaviors and may be referred to as (1) "crisis intervention" or (2) "cooling-off."

1) Crisis intervention occurs when the pupil acts out. At that time the pupil is upset and more available to some assistance. This may be the time to sit with the pupil and try to discuss his/her concerns.

2) Cooling-off is needed when a pupil acts out because there is too much going on in his/her environment. The pupil cannot cope with the stimulation in his/her surroundings. He/she needs a chance to be less stimulated. Placement in a time-out room where pressures and excessive stimulation are not present can assist him/her to manage his/her behavior. An illustration of this definition is shown in the following description of Bob, an eight-year-old student in the third grade.

Bob has reading problems and is usually frustrated during the part of each day set aside for reading. Peer relations are also difficult for him and when he is having a conflict with a peer he is likely to "explode" (i.e., yelling, throwing books). Bob's "explosions" occur two to three times a week and disrupt part of his school day and part of his classmates' school day. His teacher uses the time-out room as a place where: (1) Bob can go before an "explosion" occurs and continue his work until he feels able to handle the classroom situation again; or (2) where he can go during an "explosion" so the classroom disruption can be brief. When he "explodes" he is immediately removed from the classroom and remains in time-out until he feels able to handle the classroom situation. His teacher or a school staff member is available to Bob at these times to help him, sort out problems, and develop ways of coping with the problem situations. The teacher and other school personnel who work with Bob are continually evaluating their availability to him so that the attention they provide does not become a reinforcement for the "explosive behavior."

This is one of the basic differences between the behavioral and cooling-off definitions of time-out. Behaviorists avoid all contact with a pupil when he is engaging in inappropriate behaviors, because it is believed any contact may be reinforcing. Supporters of the cooling-off approach feel it is a time when contact should be made as the pupil is more open to assistance (Caplan, 1963; Morse, 1971; Redl, 1959).

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The teacher has taken the following steps to initiate and maintain this type of time-out program for Bob:

1) A room is available that can provide a pressure-free environment for Bob. It is a place where Bob can continue his work or he can work with some more neutral or pleasurable items such as: comic books, puzzles, individual games.

2) An adult should be available when Bob is in time-out. His teacher has an aide who can take over the class so the teacher can be with Bob to help him sort out problems and develop ways of coping with problem situations.

The availability of an adult to stay with the pupil at these times is a significant feature in this approach. If an adult is available, the time may be used for crisis intervention and efforts are made to discuss the causes of the "explosion." If an adult is not available, the time is used for cooling-off and a few words from an adult ("Bob, I want you to think about why you did that.") provide the impetus for self-examination on the child's part. The cooling-off procedure can be used most effectively with students having an adequate level of language understanding and social relationships with others.

3) The time-out area is made available to the pupil and its purpose is explained. The teacher may say something like, "Bob, when things get too confusing in class and you feel like you are going to explode, you can take a time-out and continue your work there until you are ready to return. When you explode in the classroom I will ask you to take a time-out until you calm down. I will be there to help you sort out the reasons for the explosion and we can discuss ways to prevent future ones."

The behavioral definition of time-out requires complete control of placement terms and placement termination by the teacher. The "cooling-off" definition of time-out gives the teacher and/or pupil permission to use the time-out process and to determine time-out termination. In the next definition there are combinations of both of the above orientations.

Unspecified Definition

This definition includes time-out procedure modifications which do not fit into either of the above definitions. Some of the modifications draw from the behavioral definition, some draw from the cooling-off definition, and some draw from both approaches. These modifications have their own unique elaborations which make each example an illustration of a modified time-out procedure.

1) *Time-out as a withdrawal of rewards* (Morris, 1976): In this approach the pupil is not physically removed from the rewarding situation. Instead, the rewarding stimuli are removed from the pupil. Examples of this technique are: the loss of an opportunity to earn points or tokens; the removal of desired physical contact with an adult; or the loss of adult attention (Drabman & Spitalnik, 1973). As in the behavioral approach the rewarding situation is returned to the pupil after a brief, specified time period or when the pupil terminates the target behavior.

2) *Time-out as contingent observation* (Florida Task Force on Retardation, 1975): The student is temporarily removed [illegible] an activity due to a specific inappropriate behavior and is required to sit and observe the appropriate behaviors of the others in the group. At this time the teacher explains the classroom limits to the pupil and what is expected of him/her. The pupil rejoins the activity after a few moments of observation along with a verbal indication that he/she can manage his/her behavior appropriately. This approach can only be used in conjunction with group activities and it assumes that the activities are reinforcing for the children involved.

3) *Delayed time-out* (Ramp et al., 1971): The rationale for this modification is that the use of immediate time-outs for inappropriate behaviors was too disruptive for many classroom situations. Therefore, a delayed time-out is used. From the article reviewed, observations of behavior were made and two target behaviors--talking and out-of-seat--were chosen. A light was put on the pupil's desk and each time he/she engaged in either of the target behaviors it was lit. This procedure was explained to the child, and he/she was also told each time the light went on he/she would lose five minutes of gym or recess later in the day. If the behavior occurred too late in the day to involve either of these activities, the loss was held over until the next morning. This time-out program was effective for decreasing the occurrence of the target behaviors. The light acted as a consistent and immediate reminder of the time-out consequence. This procedure was effective and the investigators suggest that it can be used by teachers who need a behavioral time-out program but find the immediate consequence of time-out impractical in their classroom situation.

Subscribing to any one definition is a matter of personal preference. It is essential to recognize that students do exhibit serious disruptions and inappropriate behaviors that are best managed by using a time-out procedure. Implementing any time-out approach requires the following steps: (1) identifying the serious behavior(s); (2) immediately placing the pupil in the designated time-out area; (3) monitoring the actual time in time-out; (4) conducting an appropriate procedure for returning the pupil to the regular class routine; and (5) evaluating the effect of the time-out procedure.

This article has attempted to clarify definitions of time-out in education and to inform teachers about procedures useful for implementing a time-out plan. The time-out plan that is implemented will depend upon the needs of the student, the skills of the teacher, and the physical facilities available to the teacher.

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Time Out in the Classroom: Implications for Special Education

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Time out from positive reinforcement has proven to be both a popular and effective consequation technique for suppressing the rate of inappropriate behavior. Time out procedures have been successfully applied across a variety of behavior problems, situations, and populations. Although indisputably effective, time out is potentially a highly aversive procedure if used improperly. Recent litigation, presumably stemming from concern over the potential for misuse of time out, has resulted in strict controls, severe limitations, or abolishment of the use of time out in some institutions. The purpose of this paper, therefore, is to provide some guidelines for the ethical and appropriate use of time out in special education settings.

Operationally defined, time out refers to the contingent withdrawal of those reinforcing stimuli thought to be maintaining the behavior of interest (Johnston, 1972). Functionally, time out from positive reinforcement results in a decrease in the frequency of that behavior upon which reinforcer removal has been made contingent. No single set of operations can adequately define time out. Baron, Kaufman, and Rakauskas (1967) identified four response contingent time out strategies: (a) removal of materials, (b) reduction or elimination of room illumination, (c) removal of adult social attention, and (d) removal of the student from a potentially reinforcing situation.

Parameters of Time Out

In their review of response contingent time out, MacDonough and Forehand (1973) identified several parameters that need to be considered by teachers prior to implementing a time out contingency. According to these authors, a teacher who contemplates the use of a time out procedure should consider if an explanation is to be provided to the student, how elaborate the explanation should be, whether a warning is to be given, how time out is to be administered, the location in which time out is to be taken, the duration of time out, and under what circumstances the student is to be released from time out. In addition, prior to prescribing specific time out strategies for individual students, the teacher should attempt to identify alternative appropriate responses that could replace the inappropriate behavior, the reinforcer(s) that maintain the inappropriate behavior, and the child's prior history with time out. Each of these factors may influence the effectiveness of a chosen time out procedure.

Ethical and Legal Implications of Time Out

Few judicial proceedings have directly addressed the use of time out from positive reinforcement as a viable and socially acceptable means for suppressing inappropriate behaviors in the classroom. The most extensive judicial proceeding that addressed time out practices has been *Wyatt v. Stickney* (1972). In general, this court stated that the right to treatment included the right to be free from isolation. An exception to this policy would be in emergency situations to prevent residents from harming themselves or others. In essence, the decision permitted room isolation (seclusion time out) if and when less restrictive means for controlling behavior were not feasible or had proven ineffective. No such exceptions were authorized with respect to mentally retarded persons.

According to the *Wyatt v. Stickney* (1972) decision, if "room time out" is to be used with "mentally ill" persons, the following guidelines should be followed closely:

1. The patient should not be placed in an isolation room for longer than one hour before calling a qualified mental health professional.
2. The professional should evaluate the episode resulting in time out.
3. If the professional determines that continuation of the time out duration is necessary, a written rationale for the decision must be provided.
4. The written order for continuing time out stands for a maximum of 24 hours.
5. While a patient is in a prolonged time out period, observation must be made a minimum of once every hour.
6. Records on the patient's behavior while in isolation should be charted.

The *Wyatt v. Stickney* decision clearly recognized a distinction between the traditional use of seclusion and time out practices. According to this decision, "legitimate 'time out' procedures may be used under close and direct professional supervision as a technique in behavior shaping programs" (*Wyatt v. Stickney*, 1972). The court, however, failed to specify what constituted a legitimate time out procedure. It can only be assumed, as Budd (1974) did, that a legitimate time out procedure is one that is: (a) consistently administered contingent upon occurrences of an undesirable behavior; (b) a brief procedure, lasting between 1 and 5 minutes and rarely extending longer than 15 minutes; and (c) coupled with objective observation of whether or not time out is fruitful in remediating the problem behavior (p. 49).

In a set of guidelines prepared for the state programs for the mentally retarded in Florida, May, McAlister, Risley, Twardosz, and Cox (1974) advised the concurrent with a time out procedure, adequate attention should be given to the reinforcement of alternative, more socially acceptable behavior. Thus, the intention of a time out strategy clearly is not just to suppress inappropriate behavior but also to simultaneously shape more appropriate response patterns.

Recommendations for Using Time Out from Positive Reinforcement

The issues and concerns discussed above clearly indicate the need for practical guidelines concerning the use of time out procedures. Accordingly, the authors have formulated the recommendations listed below. These guidelines reflect the position that time out strategies should be systematically planned, carefully supervised, and continuously evaluated.

1. Staff should be able to identify the reinforcing situations that are maintaining the child's inappropriate behavior.

2. Those behaviors that will result in time out should be explicitly stated before the time out contingency is implemented.

3. The teacher should attempt to control the inappropriate behavior first by employing milder forms of time out (i.e., ignoring, contingent observation, and exclusion time out, respectively) prior to resorting to seclusion time out.

4. Documentation that milder forms of time out have proved ineffective in suppressing the inappropriate behavior should be provided before resorting to seclusion time out.

5. The teacher should formulate a concise, written statement of procedures to be followed whenever placing a student in time out. The authors suggest these specific practices:
   a. Avoid lengthy verbal explanations as to why the student is being placed in time out. Behaviors resulting in time out should be clearly explained prior to implementing the time out program. If an explanation is provided, it should be brief but should adequately inform the student of the misbehavior involved. A standard explanation format such as, "Because you ___, you go to time out for ___ minutes," is recommended. All other interaction should be avoided.
   b. Identify those behaviors, if any, that will result in a warning before time out is implemented. These generally are behaviors of low frequency and magnitude that have not been defined explicitly previously. (Other behavior normally will require no warning.)
   c. To maximize opportunities to exercise self control, students should be given the opportunity to take their own time out after receiving the instruction from the teacher. However, if students refuse to take their own time out or if they fail to respond to the teacher's instruction within a reasonable time interval (5 to 10 seconds), the teacher should physically remove them to the time out area. For high intensity behavior (e.g., kicking, screaming), the student should be immediately escorted to time out. It is important that teachers realistically evaluate their ability to physically remove a child to the time out area. If a pupil is able to "break away," requiring a teacher to physically remove the student would be inappropriate. Presumably, classrooms with such students would either have a teacher or teacher aide who could control such resistance. If such is not the case, an alternative strategy will be required. This may entail a reevaluation of the reinforcers in the classroom and the possible use of a response cost contingency in conjunction with a token economy. Other alternatives may include reinforcing other children for ignoring disruptive behaviors or the reassignment of the uncontrollable student to a teacher who is capable of managing highly aggressive and resistant behavior.
   d. The duration of each time out period should be brief. One to 5 minutes generally is sufficient. It is doubtful that time out periods exceeding 15 minutes serve the purpose for which they are intended (i.e., temporary withholding of positive reinforcement).
   e. Release from time out should be made contingent upon the student's behavior while in time out. A changeover delay procedure of 1 minute (i.e., a contingency for release from time out of 1 minute in which no inappropriate responses are emitted) will avoid reinforcing a child's inappropriate behavior while in time out.

6. If a seclusion time out is to be employed, the time out room should:
   a. Be at least six by six feet in size.
   b. Be properly lighted (preferably recessed, with the switch outside the room).
   c. Be properly ventilated.
   d. Be free of objects and fixtures with which children could harm themselves.
   e. Provide the means by which an adult could continuously monitor, visually and auditorily, the student's behavior.
   f. Not be locked. A latch on the door should be used only as needed, and only with careful monitoring.

7. Records should be kept of each occasion when time out is implemented and should include the following information:
   a. The student's name.
   b. The episode resulting in student's placement in time out (i.e., behavior, activity, other students involved, staff person).
   c. The time of day student was placed in time out.
   d. The time of the day the student was released from time out.
   e. The total time in time out.
   f. The type of time out (contingent observation, exclusion, or seclusion).
   g. The student's behavior in time out.

8. Differential reinforcement of more appropriate social behavior should always accompany a time out contingency.

9. For time out durations in excess of 30 minutes, a supervisory staff person should be consulted to evaluate the appropriateness of continuing the time out procedure.

10. An advisory committee, consisting of the teacher, principal, behavioral specialist, and parent should be called to evaluate the appropriateness of using time out as a consequence for misbehavior if its effect in suppressing the behavior is questionable.

Concluding Comments

It should be obvious from the term *time out from positive reinforcement* that time out must occur in the context of a reinforcing classroom environment. If this is not the case, it is unlikely that time out will have the desired effect and the probability that it will be applied as a punishment procedure is greatly increased. As our guidelines suggest, time out intervention also represents only one set of a broad range of behavioral procedures, rather than the teacher's only recourse for dealing with inappropriate child behavior. Exclusive use of time out over other intervention strategies reduces its effectiveness and increases its potential for abuse.

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News of Programs for Emotionally Disabled and Chronically Disruptive Students April, 1978
Iowa Department of Public Instruction

Trends In Programming For Emotionally Disabled and Chronically Disruptive Pupils.

by Carl R. Smith
Consultant, Emotional Disabilities
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Introduction

One of the advantages of working for a state education agency is receiving a staggering volume of information related to one's area of specialization. This does not imply concurrent assimilation of such data, but at least the scene is set for random interaction with many facts regarding identification, programming, current concerns, past concerns, evaluation, and future concerns, to name a few. The purpose of this paper is to take much of this information, add some thoughts of my own and project "Trends in Programming." Naturally I hope the reader sees some validity to these projections, but I would also consider the paper successful if professional debate occurred over various points as well.

This paper is divided into sections dealing with issues in identification, programming considerations and service delivery issues. Although I have chosen to deal with these trends in discrete units, it is obvious that much overlap exists.

Issues In Identification

Increase

In Iowa there is a slow, steady increase in the number of pupils identified as emotionally disabled (E.D.) or chronically disruptive (C.D.). Yet, we are far from providing appropriate special education services and programs to the approximately 12,000 youngsters who need such options. In September 1975, 1,399 school age and preschool pupils were identified in these two categories. Of these, 790 or 54% were reported as being served in programs specifically designed for them. In September 1977, 2,206 were identified with 1,954 or 89% being reported as served in appropriate special education programs. Concurrent with this increase in identification, the number of categorical instructional programs increased from a total of 97 programs during 1975-76 to 185 such programs during the 1977-78 school year. In addition to categorical programs serving these populations, a number of mildly to moderately involved youngsters are served via multi-disability resource programs. For a listing of the categorical programs in Iowa serving emotionally disabled and chronically disruptive pupils see appendix A.

What are the implications of this increase to the professional? I will address two implications: (1) the need for additional programs and personnel and, (2) the increase in public attention to this type of special education programming.

Brown and Palmer (1977) reviewed 223 training programs in the area of emotional disturbance which were funded by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped during the 1976-77 fiscal year. These authors concluded that, for the next few years, school districts will most likely be unable to find enough qualified teachers to provide an appropriate special education program for identified emotionally disturbed children. Particular problems are anticipated at the preschool and secondary levels.

In Iowa the most frequently reported difficulty in establishing programs for the emotionally disabled and chronically disruptive is in finding a fully-qualified and certifiable teacher. In comparing our present situation with emerging national trends, it appears that this problem is most likely to accelerate. This situation is further aggravated by the reported high attrition rate among teachers of these pupils (West, 1977).

In This Issue:

"Trends in Programming for Emotionally Disabled and Chronically Disruptive Pupils" by Carl R. Smith.

Time Out in the Classroom: Implications for Special Education" by David L. Gast and C. Michael Nelson.

Special thanks to Joe Freilinger and Doug West for their contributions to this paper.

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It appears that the recruitment of E.D./C.D. teachers will require special effort. Along with this, teacher trainers need to be reminded of the growing needs in this area. If such programs respond, and they appear to be doing so, we can avoid many pitfalls associated with the necessity of granting liberal temporary teaching approvals to those who are, at best, minimally qualified to teach in such programs. The importance of the teacher variable in programming for these youngsters has been well documented (Cain, 1964, Haring and Fargo, 1969, LaBenne, 1967). We cannot overlook this.

Another trend I see is increased visibility: both from the general public and our professional colleagues. As a result, we will be expected to prove that the field of behavior disorders is a distinct professional area, and that we professionals have a unique combination of skills for dealing with this population of handicapped pupils. We will be called upon more frequently to "put our money where our mouth is" in providing services to these youngsters. Others may feel that we have decided to stigmatize a significant number of youngsters to build an "empire of their own."

We must be able to show that our services to handicapped youngsters more than justify the use of such terms as emotionally disabled or chronically disruptive. It behooves us to keep in mind a statement made in the study **The Futures of Children: Categories, Labels, and Their Consequences:**

> **Classification of exceptional children is essential to get services for them, to plan and organize helping programs, and to determine the outcome of intervention efforts. There is widely expressed sentiment that classification of exceptional children should be done away with. This is a misguided aspiration. Classification and labeling are essential to human communication and problem solving; we do not wish to encourage the belief that abuses can be remedied by not classifying. What we argue for is more precise categories and more discriminating ways of describing children in order to plan appropriate programs for them.** (p. 8)

Emphasis On Observed Behavior

Another area of change related to identification is increased emphasis on the documentation of observed behavior patterns in identifying youngsters in need of services for emotionally disabled or chronically disruptive pupils. We can no longer rely on such constructs as "clinical judgment" as the primary criteria by which we identify youngsters with behavioral difficulties. O'Leary (1972) has provided us with an excellent review of the shortcomings of this methodology, specifically the validity and reliability of projective techniques and has concluded, "Even when the behavioral criterion is specific, results concerning the relationship of responses on a projective protocol and overt behavior are conflicting." (p. 242) I am not meaning to imply that we are no longer interested in the affective status of the pupils with whom we deal. This is still an important component in our identification procedures. But it is a part of our assessment, not the whole!

Could any of us in a hearing or quasi-legal setting justify our role and services without specifically delineating those behaviors, manifested by a youngster, which led to his/her inclusion in our program? As Martin (1975) has stated, "Intervening in someone's life to change his/her behavior is a potential deprivation of liberty sufficient to raise constitutional issues. Such intervention should be limited to behavior which is within the legitimate interest of the institution involved and which actually occurs and is intolerable." (p. 13) Yes – let's remain sensitive to those personal conflicts and crises our pupils may experience. But, let's also realize that we must include specific descriptions, even as precise as frequency counts, of those behaviors which led to a child's or adolescent's inclusion in our programs.

Use of Educational Terminology

Another trend I see in both identification and programming is a further movement away from medical/psychiatric terminology and methodology. Frank Hewett (1969) has cautioned us against the tendency to function as "pseudoneurologists." Added to this should be a caution against acting as "pseudopsychiatrists."

We, as professional educators, have unique skills, methods and vocabulary. What can we do with such syndromes as "symbiotic psychosis" or "obsessive – compulsive neurosis"? We can, however, design and implement programs for youngsters who are consistently exhibiting inappropriate classroom behavior, for the youngster who is the social isolate in the regular classroom or for the youngster who consistently is physically aggressive with his/her classmates. By using such terminology, we are stressing the point that we are specifically trained professionals with skills of our own.

Programming Considerations

A second major area of implications for education comes under the heading of what I term "programming considerations." This area, will cover such concepts as the Individual Educational Program (IEP), accountability, program evaluation, reintegration concerns, and teacher training.

IEP

IEP is a pressing topic of discussion in special education today. As stated in the 1977 annual report of the National Advisory Committee on the Handicapped, "In its call for an 'individualized education program' (IEP) for each handicapped child, P.L. 94-142 can be credited with having codified what has long been recognized as superior teaching practice. In doing so it may very well speed the use of the approach for all children." (p. 6)

Public Law 94-142 defines the IEP as follows:

> **The term "individualized education program" means a written statement for each handicapped child developed in any meeting by a representative of the local educational agency or an intermediate educational unit who shall be qualified to provide or supervise the provision of specifically designed instruction to meet the unique needs of handicapped children, the teacher, the parents or guardian of such child, and whenever appropriate, such child, which statement shall include: (A) a statement of the present levels of educational performance of such child, (B) a statement of annual goals, including short-term instructional objective, (C) a statement of the specific educational services to be provided to such child, and the extent to which such child will be able to participate in regular educational programs, (D) the projected date for initiation and anticipated duration of such services, and appropriate objective criteria and evaluation procedures.**

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Let's pause for a moment and discuss what the IEP is not. According to the most recent document prepared in our state, "The IEP does not dictate a particular management system, curriculum, methodology or evaluation paradigm." I think this is an important point to keep in mind. In the field of behavioral disorders there are various management systems, curriculums and methodological considerations from which to choose. In my opinion, no single one has been consistently proven to be superior to all others. Some educators have been trained to program for youngsters out of a psychoeducational framework while others approach teaching from a strong behavioral background. Still others may base our interventions on "ecological" considerations.

Although I feel that you must construct a philosophical base from which to proceed in programming for these pupils, I do not advocate the adoption of any single philosophical base as being the only premise from which to plan programs. Rather, I feel that appropriate programs for youngsters with behavioral disorders may be effectively established under any one of several theories which, via subsequent empirical reports, have been found successful in the education of this population.

The choice of a primary philosophical base is dependent on such variables as the teacher's professional preparation, the school setting, the population of youngsters served and the background of the professional team participating in the program. I do, however, feel that it is important for every program to have a stated philosophy and that such a philosophy be consistently reflected in the pupil's written individualized educational program.

Some of you may now ask the question, "If you believe in such flexibility, what about those things you just said regarding minimal prerequisites for identification?" In dealing with overall programming for behaviorally disordered youngsters, I feel that we are in reality dealing with a multi-theoretical approach. Using the dichotomy of program elements as defined by McCauley (1977), I feel that much flexibility of theoretical underpinnings is present in such program elements as operational methods, curriculum and materials. At other program points, such as identification, particular theories may dominate. I do feel that pupil identification should be largely behaviorally based. As stated in our definition of emotional disabilities, "The determination of this handicap is largely based on the consistency, intensity and duration of the behavior of concern." **(Rules of Special Education,** 1977)

Assertion of the Importance of the Role Education Plays in Lives of Children

Another trend I see in our state is an intensified assertion of the importance of the role of education in the lives of emotionally disabled and chronically disruptive students. In some cases, especially in those programs termed psychodynamic, we may have looked upon the role of education as being secondary to the therapy needs of such youngsters. Although I do not mean to degrade the role of therapy, especially in the lives of those more severely involved youngsters with whom we deal; we are, as educators, of equal status to those other professionals interacting with these pupils. This is a concept we should be stressing via our behavior.

The importance of the role of education in the lives of these children is being stressed in many areas (Departments of Justice and Health, Education and Welfare, 1977, National Society for Autistic Children, 1976). Morse (1969) presents the idea that achievement may serve as a basic therapeutic tool in working with the emotionally disabled child. He states that the therapeutic value of achievement is especially operative when the child has achieved little or nothing in the past. This view is further substantiated on a more theoretical level by Rhodes (1963). He states that the academic needs of emotionally disabled children are based on two statements by Jacques Maritan. The first of these positions contends that the best way to repress bad energies is to liberate good ones. The second states that the art of education is to make the child heedful of his own resources and potentialities.

We must assert ourselves as professional educators. We welcome as much professional input and assistance in providing quality programming to E.D. and C.D. youngsters as is available, and we realize that the youngsters we deal with may have a wide range of program needs which cannot be fully met by instructional personnel. Yet, we must assert the importance of our role as professional educators with the appropriate training to make program decisions regarding the educational needs of these pupils.

Accountability (academic and behavioral)

Paul Graubard (1973) alludes to many of the questions we are being asked regarding special education programming in general. He states:

> **Special education classes in even the least developed programs have lower pupil-teacher ratios and higher per capita costs than regular classes: thus, high taxes and difficulties in meeting school operating costs make evaluation of program effectiveness and justification of expenditures especially important. (256-66)**

This statement points to what I feel is going to be an increased emphasis in our accountability in programming for emotionally disabled and chronically disruptive pupils; in both academic and behavioral areas. No longer will our programs be assumed to be adequate. We must be able to prove to our consumers, including our pupils, their parents, regular educators and many others, that our particular programs are beneficial and individually appropriate to the youngsters we serve. Accountability, as described in a recent publication dealing with IEP's (Iowa, 1977), includes (1) an ongoing process observed by more than one person, (2) a criteria by which to judge that act as appropriate or successful and (3) persons responsible for performing that act.

You may note I stated that our accountability must be shown in both academic and behavioral areas. One of the traps into which we may easily fall as educators of emotionally disabled and chronically disruptive pupils, is to become so concerned with unacceptable behavior that we overlook other areas, such as academic needs. Most of these youngsters have academic deficiencies; deficiencies which cannot be explained on the basis of other handicapping conditions (Schroeder, 1965; Morse, Cutler and Fink, 1964; Quay, Werry, McQueen and Sprague, 1969; Departments of Justice and Health, Education and Welfare, 1977). We must deal with these academic deficiencies to enable these youngsters to become successful students — a goal for which we strive. Many

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professionals contend that achievement precedes adjustment. Even if one chooses not to accept this paradigm, it seems logical to state, "achievement accentuates adjustment and works to maintain it."

Uniformity of Program Evaluation

Another programming trend I see in our state is a move toward more uniform program evaluation. Such uniformity should include both a means of evaluating the success of each individual pupil's program and a means of evaluating the overall educational program. Consistency in this area seems to be lacking in Iowa at this time. In a 1975 special study institute entitled "Implementing Programs for the Emotionally Disabled in the Public Schools," sponsored by the Iowa Department of Public Instruction, 115 professionals working with programs for the emotionally disabled responded to a questionnaire pertaining to the area of program evaluation (**Iowa Perspective**, May, 1976). When asked the means by which they presently evaluated the effectiveness of their programs, the replies varied from responses such as, "limited to program director observation" to "pre-post normative test battery, regular teacher behavior ratings, goal attainment scaling, structured interviewing for consumer satisfaction and program change recommendations." After attempting to group similar responses from this questionnaire one still notes that more than 40 different methodologies were reported by these respondents.

Consistent pupil and program evaluation is vital in determining whether our programs are in fact successful. In evaluating an individual youngster's program we need to address both academic and nonacademic areas. In both areas such an evaluation should be largely based on observed behavior. Documentation of change is essential. Methods of program evaluation also include: documented group academic and behavioral improvement, successful reintegration of pupils, school staff impressions of the program, parental response to the program, and long range school success of the pupils served via such a program.

I see a move toward more uniform program evaluation. I do not, however, see this uniformity taking the form of dictated instruments and procedures as the only means by which to evaluate pupil progress and program success. Rather, I see the possibility of our together defining areas that need to be evaluated, for example pupil and class academic progress, and establishing a variety of means and instruments by which to evaluate such a component. By doing things this way, we are assuring that evaluation needs are being met while at the same time allowing for individual preferences within our own professional community. I, too, don't like anyone telling me that there is only one way to do something.

Increased Reintegration

Another programming trend I see for the future is an increased emphasis on the successful reintegration of pupils served in E.D. and C.D. programs. Grosenick (1970) has stated, "One of the most important objectives of special education programs for emotionally disturbed children is to return them to regular education programs as soon as possible. In other words, special education is seen as a temporary intervention which should prepare exceptional children for their return to a regular education program." (p. 113)

The discontinuation of a program or service to pupils identified as emotionally disabled or chronically disruptive should be largely based on the reduction in the consistency, intensity and duration of the behavior of the concern. Just as programming for these youngsters must be systematic, the plans we have for reintegration must also possess this property. Successful reintegration is a multifaceted component (Grosenick, 1971). Among the important variables are: the child's behavior change, his or her academic skills, the instructional climate in the regular classroom to which he/she is returning, the skills and motivation of the regular classroom teacher, the administrative support provided to facilitate the reintegration process, parental cooperation and the planning which has been done prior to and during this procedure. The reintegration operation requires careful planning and should be implemented in a phase-in manner rather than an all-or-nothing approach. Plans for reintegration should be a part of every child's written individualized educational program.

I think that we, as professional educators, will be asked more and more frequently what our plans for reintegration are. More importantly, if a pupil remains in an E.D. or C.D. program for an extended period of time, with little progress being shown, someone is going to ask, "Why?" Fortunately, in Iowa we have a team of professionals who will be helping us in this process. The most obvious positive component of this trend is a move away from viewing any of our programs as a dead-end street.

More Intensive and Extensive Training of Teachers

Another programming trend I see for the future is an increased emphasis in the areas of teacher training and teacher inservice. I feel this is an area that cannot be overstressed. Among the areas of concern I have are: (1) the lack of a sufficient number of adequately trained and appropriately certified teachers to staff our instructional programs, (2) the wide diversity in beginning competencies of E.D. and C.D. teachers, and (3) the difficulties encountered in finding sufficient numbers of leadership personnel in these areas.

A United States Office of Education Study (Mackie, Kvaraceus and Williams, 1957) dealt with an evaluation of teaching competencies by teachers. Seventy-five teachers of emotionally disabled pupils, were asked to rate their competencies, both as to their proficiency in each area and each area's importance in teaching emotionally disabled children. The results showed that these teachers, as a group, felt most capable in those areas they considered least important. The teachers felt specifically weak in areas requiring knowledge and application of definite skills and techniques for working with emotionally disabled ~~pupils~~.

One might consider the above study as not applicable since it was conducted in 1957. However, on a more recent note Brown and Palmer (1977) conclude their review of training programs in emotional disturbance by stating:

> Over the next few years, the Division of Personnel Preparation (BEH) will respond to changing personnel needs by establishing as a high priority for [illegible] funding, projects focusing on traditionally [illegible] emotional disturbance personnel areas. With [illegible] teachers currently adequately prepared for the new population of emotionally disturbed children that will

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teach, hope for the full promise of Public Law 94-142 must be placed in preservice and inservice teacher education. (p. 174)

Fortunately, in Iowa, I think that our training programs are beginning to shift their emphasis to deal with this neglected area. I have felt that in the past these programs were geared toward training teachers of the learning disabled or mentally disabled with emotional disabilities being added as an adjunctive area.

A spin-off effect of increased emphasis in teacher preparation is that we will begin to see professionals emerging from training programs better trained than we are. We will be forced to upgrade our skills to keep up with these young "up-starts." Consequently, I see an increased emphasis on inservice training and the consistent upgrading of our instructional skills. Whether the provider of such training is the university, state department, or others, I hope that similar to preservice training, the pressure is applied to make such training meaningful.

General Delivery Issues

This area includes (a) parental and home involvement, (b) the need to advocate for a continuum of program options, (c) the severity of the youngsters we deal with in school settings and (d) changes in our institutional programs.

Parental and Home Involvement

Parental cooperation and participation in our programs [illegible] to maximize the chances of such programs succeeding. This cooperation, under good conditions, exceeds the basic requirements of due process. For example, we may deal with a motivational system that includes both in-school and out-of-school rewards for appropriate behavior. In such a case we may be seeking the display of a[illegible] acquired positive behavior in both school and home settings. In this case, total success is quite dependent on how successful we have been soliciting cooperation from the parents. As noted by Bandura (1969), ". . . behavioral changes established under artificial conditions must be supplanted with generalization training, with respect to both the types of tasks and incentives employed, in order to ensure adequate transfer effects."

In an earlier issue of Iowa Perspective (May, 1977) we dealt with the data regarding a youngster's home environment that we need for identification procedures. Such data includes a background of the parents' perception of the problem, the history of their youngster's difficulties, as well as perceived home factors which may be contributing to or maintaining the youngster's difficulties in school. I feel that we should be cautious in determining what data we need beyond this. If we propose to collect very personal data describing a home or family situation I think that we must also be able to justify the collection of such data on the basis of identification issues or implications for educational programming. If we cannot do this, then we have no business requesting such information. I base this opinion on both what I feel are the basic privacy rights of our pupils and their parents, as well as the p[illegible]ional and programming efficacy challenges which can be made if we appear to gather unnecessary information.

Another area which concerns me is what we do in situations in which parental cooperation to ongoing programming is not forthcoming. I feel that, although we realize the importance of such cooperation, we must be ready and willing to procede without it. We can no longer use lack of parental cooperation as a reason for the failure of our programs. In the past I have heard statements such as "the reason John's behavior in school has not improved is because there have not been any changes at home." I do not feel we can justify the nonefficacy of any of our programs on such a premise.

Need for Continuum

Another trend I see is an increase in our advocacy for the development of a full continuum of educational options for the youth we serve. I see this as one of our top priorities in the future. How can we appropriately serve a mildly involved emotionally disabled youngster when the only option available is a self-contained classroom? Likewise, how can we adequately serve a severely involved youngster when the only option available is a resource teaching program?

A mildly involved emotionally disabled youngster, defined by the frequency, intensity and duration of the behavior is best served through such options as professional support to the regular classroom teacher and resource teaching programs. If we try to fit such a youngster into a self-contained program are we meeting the "least restrictive" mandate? Fortunately, I have not often seen such proposals.

When we have the opposite situation, a proposal to place a severely involved youngster into a less intensive and structured program, such as a resource model, we have another problem. In my experience, this is a more common practice. In this case, we fall short in meeting the mandate of providing "an appropriate program" regardless of the lack of restrictiveness in such a proposal.

Both of these instances are examples of what occurs when we do not have a variety of programs available to serve behaviorally disordered pupils. It seems logical that with more options to serve these youngsters, the probability is higher that we will truly provide an appropriate special education program. As Deno (1968) has stated: "The cascade system is designed to make available whatever different-from-the-mainstream kind of setting is required to control the learning variables deemed critical for the individual case. It is a system which facilitates tailoring of treatment to individual needs rather than a system for sorting out children so they will fit conditions designed according to group standards not necessarily suitable for the particular case."

Changes in Institutional Programs and The Effect On Public School Programs

We are beginning to see a much closer working relationship between our public school programs and institutional/residential programs serving emotionally disabled and chronically disruptive pupils. Public Law 94-142 specifically delineates the responsibility of providing an appropriate special education program to handicapped pupils in both our public schools and state and private institutions. Some may feel that with the recent emphasis on "mainstreaming" and "normalization," our institutions will soon be obsolete. I do not agree. To eliminate such programs would also eliminate a vital link in the true continuum of services. Can we afford to eliminate such programs when, in many cases, no comparable service is available at the community level? As noted in The Futures of Children:

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> **The bandwagon for community-based programs is gathering momentum, and it is entirely possible that the precipitous closing of large institutions without sufficient preparation in the community to receive and care for the children released may defeat a fundamentally sensible reform and produce a new crisis in caring. (p. 28)**

However, I do feel that we need to establish the situation in which our youngsters who need to leave their community for an institutional program will have a continuous educational program with information readily available from one place to the other. Along with this trend will be the application of consistent standards applied to both public school and institutional programs. This includes the area of teacher preparation and certification.

As we develop more programs in our public schools, we are going to be dealing in part with a more severely involved population; a population that may in the past have automatically ended up in our institutional programs. This is based on my belief that in the past a lack of educational options may have contributed to the need for residential programs for many of these young people. We are going to be expected to program for many youngsters who, five years ago, would have been institutionalized for an extended period of time. To me, the possibility of adequately serving these youngsters in school based programs is one of our basic incentives, for continuing to advocate for the further development of programs serving emotionally disabled and chronically disruptive pupils.

Summary

As a final note, I would like to share my philosophy of the education of emotionally disabled and chronically disruptive pupils. This philosophy has been shaped by the influence many of you have had on me.

Programs in the areas of emotional disabilities and chronically disruptive should be based on the following assumptions: behavior is a dynamic phenomenon and is amendable to change; appropriate special education programming contributes to positive behavioral change; pupils must be given an opportunity to exhibit their newly acquired, more acceptable behavior patterns; behavior change is necessary for the student's best interest; needs in addition to the behavioral area, i.e. academic, must also be met in these programs; and, these programs provide specific components which cannot be adequately and consistently provided for in other special education or regular education programs.

I feel that the most desirable educational alternative for any handicapped pupil is a program which provides opportunities for such a person to interact with his/her "normal" age peers. I realize, however, that some emotionally disabled or chronically disruptive youngsters cannot function in such a setting for a variety of reasons. When students are removed from the regular educational program they should be placed in the "least restrictive alternative" possible. This must, however, be carefully balanced with the concept of an "appropriate program" in making a program placement decision. For example, to place a severely involved emotionally disabled child in a resource teaching program may meet the "least restrictive mandate," yet fall short of meeting such a youngster's needs as far as an "appropriate" special education program.

I feel that the ultimate goal of any educational program serving these youngsters is to adequately prepare such youngsters for a productive, self-satisfying life, unencumbered by the behavioral difficulties they may have, or be perceived as manifesting, during the school years. I do not consider a goal of our programs to be the shaping of all youngsters into "conforming beings." Rather, I feel that one of our primary goals is to increase the "behavioral freedom" of those youngsters we serve. Behavioral freedom, not in the sense of a license to create havoc in our school classrooms, but rather, freedom to grow into mature productive adults. I believe that this increase in an individual's behavioral freedom includes: (1) achievement, both in and out of school, near one's capacity, (2) the ability to make wise personal decisions, and (3) the capability of living one's life as an individual, yet not being unjustly obtrusive to the lives of others.

This paper has addressed what I think are trends in the areas of emotional disabilities and chronically disruptive related to identification, programming considerations and general delivery issues. I approached this task both eagerly and humbly. After all, the description of trends has to be "in the eyes of the beholder" and subject to valid debate. As I stated earlier, I would be pleased if this paper contributes to our continuing dialogue as to what comprises quality programming for emotionally disabled and chronically disruptive pupils. In closing I am also reminded of a quip once made by Mark Twain, "The trouble with human beings is that they know so many things that ain't so."

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April, 1978

Appendix A

Iowa Programs Serving Pupils With Emotional Disabilities or Pupils Identified as Chronically Disruptive (Public School Sponsored*)

Emotional Disabilities	**1977-78**	**1978-79 (proposed)**
Resource Teaching Programs (1.7)		
Elementary		16
Secondary	3	8
Special Class with Integration (1.7)		
Elementary	18	39
Secondary	14	46
Self-Contained Class (2.0)		
Preschool	2	5
Elementary	33	50
Secondary	22	37
Self-Contained - Severe (4.2)	55	68
Itinerant	1	3
Juvenile Facility Based	6	8
Home - Hospital	1	0
Total	155	280
Chronically Disruptive		
Self-Contained - Severe (4.2)	30	57
Grand Total	185	337

*This does not include the approximately 600 emotionally disabled pupils who, during the 1977-78 school year, are being served in multi-disability programs.

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AREA: Time Out Log Sheet - - - SAMPLE
SOURCE: Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1
PROCEDURE: This format is a sample of a log sheet used by several ED teachers in the Keystone Area. It contains the necessary components which are recommended by the references listed earlier in this section to ensure proper documentation.

TIME OUT LOG

PUPIL: ______________________________ TEACHER: ______________________________

TIME OUT NUMBER	DATE	TASK FROM WHICH PUPIL IS TIMED OUT	TIME BEGAN	TIME ENDED	TOTAL TIME	USE OF TIME OUT				
						0	1	2	3	4

USE OF TIME OUT:
0 - child initiated desire to go to time out
1 - child was asked to go to time out and went willingly
2 - child was asked to go to time out; went; resisted verbally
3 - child was asked to go to time out; refused; required assistance
4 - child was asked to go to time out; required contact with principal

AREA: Time Out -- Systematic Exclusion
LEVEL: PIJS
SOURCE: Provided by Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1
PROCEDURE: Systematic exclusion is a form of time-out which is designed to increase self-control. Techniques are explained in the article below.

SYSTEMATIC EXCLUSION PROCEDURE:

A technique to develop self-control

Basic Premise: Abuse of a freedom limits that freedom -- sooner or later, in one way or another.

Aims: (1) Establish an administrative means of protecting the classroom from disruption.

(2) Institute a way of helping the child to attain self-control.

Concepts:

(1) All children wish to be in the school (classroom) up to at least 8th grade regardless of academic or behavioral skills/deficits.

(2) Gaining cooperation and support by all parties (child, school, parents) enhances the power and success-rate of the contingencies.

(3) Immediate communication using a common set of rules prevents oversights and inconsistencies.

(4) Providing a prosocial-positive model increases the chance that the child will imitate and behave appropriately (prosocially).

Steps:

(1) Development of explicit rules and guidelines - limit four.

(2) Development of a "face-saving" process for the child to demonstrate positive-appropriate conduct or attitude (typically brief academic tasks).

(3) Agreement and active support of school staff, parents and child to these rules and the "face-saving" process.

(4) Removal from the classroom and/or school for violation of rules.

(5) Immediate communication (feedback) of facts to all parties.

Description:

The Systematic Exclusion Procedure (SEP) is a logical consequences system. The method of consequences consists of invoking a procedure which controls the behavior of the child and others around the child such that a given, specific act on the child's part results in a pre-agreed specific act on the part of those around him. In short, when the child does something, others are constrained to react as stipulated in the system or procedure. It is a controlled and pre-planned action-reaction system, where the action and reaction are contingent.

There are at least three ways to consequate: (1) penalties, (2) rewards, and (3) restriction. Feedback may be used in each type and enhances the effectiveness of the consequence. The first two are arbitrary because the consequence may not follow logically from the offending action. For example, a parent slapping a child in response to the child's sassing is an arbitrary response. Arbitrary consequences are far more effective with certain types of behaviors. For example, the logical consequence of playing with an electrical wire is a shock - of course, this is a dangerous consequence, thus a slap on the offending hand may be more desirable, especially if the child is quite young and can't cognitively connect an abstract - "potential shock" - with the behavior of touching the wire.

Systematic exclusion is a rather drastic attempt to solve a chronic problem. It is important to make sure that all parties (child, school, parents, others) agree that whatever discipline or punishment was used has failed or that it would fail if used. The school's principal, in particular, must be committed to the position that the child will no longer be allowed to disrupt the class, whatever the causes of such behavior, even if it means suspension (dismissed either in-school or home). The SEP allows for such dismissal only with parental consent/sanction. Thus, on each occasion that the child is dismissed, it is understood by all that the parents had requested such a dismissal. All parties, especially the parents, must understand that school is not doing the child any good; in fact, it is doing the child harm by allowing to continue disrupting the classroom.

The SEP is focused on the child's inability to maintain self-control. Every minute the child remains in school/class is one minute of practice of self-control to fulfill the wish of being in school. Academic learning must await development of self-control.

There are two basic types of SEP's, Contract and Proclamation. The Contract type is a written agreement where each party promises to do something in exchange for the acts of the other party. The child agrees to play his part, namely to do as he pleases and take the credit or blame for what ensues. Compulsive misbehaviors are best managed by a contract SEP. The Proclamation type does not ask the child to agree to anything - it simply proclaims that the persons involved will act as stipulated. Impulsive misbehaving is more efficiently handled with a proclamation SEP. In cases where one is uncertain as to whether the behavior is indeed impulsive, it is best to use a contract SEP.

It is vitally important for all parties to get a clear understanding of the specifics of the SEP during the staffing - even to the point of role playing (behaviorally rehearsing) how it would happen that the child would break a rule and how the teacher would signal the child to leave the classroom. Both verbal and non-verbal signals may be used. It is typically easier to use this procedure in the elementary grades merely on the basis of the fewer number of people involved as compared to high school circumstances. All teachers must follow the SEP including the "once-a-week music instructor", etc. Attached is an example of the contract SEP and below is a portion of a report recommending the use of a Proclamation SEP at the Jr. High/High School level.

Ref. Kiersey, D.W. Systematic exclusion: Eliminating chronic classroom disruptions. In Behavioral Counseling. Krumboltz & Thoresen (eds.), New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1969.

Specifically, use of a systematic exclusion/isolation procedure would entail very explicit rules of this procedure being laid out and agreed upon and signed as in contract form between the parties responsible, including the child, his parents, the administrative staff, and the teaching staff. The first step in this process is to gather the teaching staff together and determine what behaviors are going to warrant exclusion with the idea that they will be able to maintain consistency more readily with their direct input than they would otherwise. Upon exclusion from a class period for whatever behavior has been determined, the child will be isolated in a 3 x 5 room somewhere near the gymnasium area that has no materials, no windows, etc. The child is to be given a ten to fifteen minute work assignment to complete during the time that he is in isolation. In order to be eligible for release from the isolated situation he would have to complete the task and turn it in to the class teacher who had assigned it. This would also apply for study hall periods with the one exception of the teacher who does not have him in a class; he would then be given some extra credit or alternate credit items from other classes. When he is excluded from a particular classroom, he is excluded for the remainder of that particular period. The school has fifty minute periods. If he finishes the work assignment by which he must buy himself out of isolation within that class period time, he may then take the completed assignment to the appropriate teacher, get that teacher's approval, and then be permitted to pass to his next class period with the other kids. In the event that the child does not complete the task assigned to him, he will not be permitted to go back to the teacher, nor will he be permitted to pass to the next class period's classroom. If, during the lunch hour, the child decides that he is not going to complete his task he will take lunch in the isolation room rather than being permitted out to interact with the other children.

These procedures on exclusion/isolation were agreed upon by both the AEA, school and the parents. There will be provisions made for determining the rules, that is which specific behaviors will be inadmissible in the classrooms. Then a conference will be held between the parents, teachers, and the child to lay out the rules and to get signatures on a contract form indicating that they are aware of the rules of this procedure. Sample:

(1) I will bring assignments and materials to class and have assignments done on time.

(2) I will not interrupt teachers when they are lecturing or students when they are responding to a teacher's question.

(3) I will not leave my seat or stand up without receiving permission.

(4) I will not stare at other students or sit and stare out the window.

After receiving one warning, a violation of any one of the guidelines will result in my being removed from the classroom. I understand that I will be allowed to return when my assignments meet the satisfaction of the teacher involved.

Student Signature ______________________________

It seems reasonable to conclude that this particular procedure, while stringent, provides the child with an opportunity for positive prosocial behavior, that is saving face by completing the work assignment and being able to get himself back with the other children in a very minimal amount of time.

AREA: Physical Restraint in the Classroom
SOURCE: (See individual articles)

PHYSICAL RESTRAINT

Introductory Statement

The dilemma of what to do with a student who does not respond to the usual behavior management techniques or Time-Out practices has been a frustrating problem for those working with ED students. Such students may drastically exceed behavior limits, become out-of-control and possibly endanger themselves and others by their aberrant actions.

Although it seems obvious that a teacher would need to take drastic measures at such times, it is important to realize that legal rights of students and parents still come into play. The reader may wish to refer to the first article in the Time-Out section which presents legal concerns and a thorough discussion of sound professional practices for physical restraint and Time-Out.

The readings in this section dealing with unique concerns regarding Physical Restraint provide additional direction on legal considerations, charting, and rationale for using (and not-using) physical restraint. Also included is an article which gives specific procedures for physical management during confrontation situations.

LEGAL ISSUES AND IMPLICATIONS OF PHYSICAL CONTROL

The legal implications come clearly in view when we decide to touch the child. Even when the objective is not to punish the student, the following issues should be considered when you use physical control strategies:

1) The age and the size of the child.

2) The seriousness of the target behavior.

3) The teacher's sex who may be using physical control.

4) How long you physically touch or hold a child.

5) Where you touch the child.

Prevention of Legal Hassles with the Use of Physical Control:

1) Have other adults present if possible when you use physical control.

2) Record the incident when physical control was used including the time and the type of incident which perpetrated its use.

3) Notify the parents if physical control has been used.

4) Include in the IEP if you plan on using teaching/control strategies, or if there is a history of aggressive-disruptive behaviors which may lead to having to use safety or protective control procedures. Emphasize in the IEP the use of physical control as a "last resort" intervention.

5) Check the school or school district regulations on physical involvement with students.

6) Be aware of parental attitudes toward you and the school.

7) Have guidelines written up and approved by the administrative body for the use of physical control techniques in your classroom.

Provided by Mark Cannon, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA

PHYSICAL CONTROL

Most teachers are confronted with situations where they must physically come in contact with a student. The following information is presented as a guide to those teachers who may find it necessary to come in physical contact with a student for other reasons than to provide reinforcement. The emphasis in the information provided is on teaching, control, and safety--not aversion. WE DO NOT ADVOCATE THE USE OF PHYSICAL CONTROL MANAGEMENT UNLESS IT IS ABSOLUTELY NECESSARY.

Hierarchy of Physical Management:

The following five areas have a single common component in that they all involve physical contact with a student. They are listed in degree of aversiveness from least aversive to most aversive.

I. Teaching: When one comes in contact with a child for teaching purposes it may include prompting, guiding or reinforcing behaviors. Total physical control over the child's behavior is not implied.

II. Teaching/Control: Prompting and guiding is also employed in this area of physical management. The primary difference between this and teaching alone is that the prompting and guiding or shaping is done through total physical control over the child's behavior. It is also not meant to be reinforcing to the student. It may be mildly aversive to many students since they may resist being physically controlled. The primary use of teaching/control is to teach new behaviors through total physical management over the child's behavior.

III. Protective/Control: Total physical control over the child again is implied. The purpose of protective/control is to control the student when your safety, the safety of the student, or his peers and others are involved. Included in the protective area is to control a child to prevent the destruction of private or public property. Often protective/control techniques are used when highly disruptive-aggressive or "out of control" behaviors are elicited. Protective/control techniques may also be aversive to some students.

IV. Aversive/Control: The primary use of aversive/control techniques is to physically control a child to decrease negative behaviors. No teaching of new behaviors is implied. The use of aversive/control techniques is purposefully used as a punishing technique.

V. Aversive/Corporal Punishment: The principal goal of techniques in this area is again to decrease negative behaviors. There is no physical control component implied. Physical contact with a child is used only to inflict some degree of discomfort.

Provided by: Mark Cannon, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA

PHYSICAL RESTRAINT IN THE CLASSROOM: Comments and Suggestions

Implications

Physical restraint refers to teacher imposed control of the student who temporarily is unable to maintain the self-control necessary for student performance.

Physical restraint represents only one set of a broad range of behavioral procedures, rather than the teacher's only recourse for dealing with inappropriate child behavior. It typically is to be reserved for the authority defiant youngster whose behavior is threatening to himself or others and/or abusive and destructive in nature.

Although generally accepted as an effective and necessary technique for behavior shaping in more restrictive special classrooms, such procedures should be used under close and direct professional supervision. Effective, legitimate use of physical restraint should include: (1) systematic preplanning with parental input and approval, (2) clearly defined steps for implementation, utilizing a full range of appropriate prior interventions, (3) assurance that adequate attention is given to the reinforcement of alternative more socially acceptable behavior, and (4) objective observation of whether or not physical restraint is successful in remediating the behavior problem.

A teacher who considers use of physical restraint needs to address these issues:

Is an explanation to be provided to the student?
How elaborate should the explanation be?
Should a warning be given?
How is the physical restraint to be administered?
Under what circumstances is the student to be released from restraint?

Recommendations for the Use of Physical Restraint

1. Teacher/Staff should be able to identify potentially explosive situations that are precipitating the child's inappropriate behavior and initiate preventative techniques, i.e. modification of materials, environment, approach.

2. Those behaviors resulting in physical restraint should be generally understood by all students. Behavioral limitations should be well defined.

3. The teacher should attempt to control the behavior first by implementing milder forms of restraint: (1) removal of adult social approval, i.e. "I will work with you when you can behave appropriately." (2) removal of materials, i.e. "Your work has to be completed. When you can behave like a student we will proceed." (3) a direct command stating immediate need for acceptable behavior, i.e. "Sit down in your seat!"

4. To aid in the development of self-control, the student should be given the opportunity to follow through after receiving the direct command from the teacher as in #3 above. However, if the student fails to respond within a reasonable time (5 to 10 seconds), physical restraint should be initiated.

5. Avoid lengthy verbalizations and explanations as to why the student is being restrained. If an explanation is provided, it should be brief and sufficiently informative, i.e. "When you quiet down and can sit in your chair, I'll let go." All other interactions should be avoided.

6. If a behavior management system using tokens or points is being used, response cost should be considered.

7. Reinforcement of other students for ignoring the disruptive behavior is essential.

8. Release from physical restraint should be made contingent upon: (1) the student's behavior during restraint - has the student quieted down enough to regain control? It may help to make release contingent upon a specified time in which no inappropriate responses or behavior occured, i.e. "When you can be quiet and relaxed for one minute, I'll let go." (2) the student's apology for misbehavior including an obvious acknowledgement of the initial wrong behavior, and a plan of action to deter behavior in the future.

9. If destruction of property was involved, plans for restitution or overcorrection should be made. Restitution - could include return of object to rightful owner or giving an equivalent for loss or damage over-correction - correction for destructive behavior and then some, i.e. if student wrote on wall, he scrubs the entire wall.

10. Differential reinforcement of more appropriate social behavior should always accompany use of physical restraint.

11. If the student cannot be maintained by physical restraint in the area where the behavior occured, physical removal to a time out room may be necessary.

Physical Restraint Techniques

The student should be restrained in his chair whenever possible. For maximum control and reduced likelihood of injury to teacher, arms should be brought to the back of the student to be held. Movement of the arms upward increases control during struggle. Likewise, arms should be gradually relaxed downward when composure is exhibited. Inappropriate behavior requiring physical restraint can generally be contained by one teacher in this position.

If the student cannot be maintained in his chair, restraint on the floor is the next alternative. He should be lifted and placed stomach down with arms brought to the back, using movement of arms to control as above. The primary person involved with the confrontation should maintain control of the upper body and arms, with the assistance from aide or other predetermined adult for legs and lower half of the body. This position will insure safety for all involved. If the student cannot be maintained in the area that the behavior occured using the above techniques, physical removal to a time out area may become necessary.

Documentation

Records should be kept of each occasion when physical restraint is implemented and should include the following information:

(1) The episode resulting in student's being restrained, i.e. behavior, activity, other student's involved, staff person, etc.

(2) The time of day the student required restraint.

(3) The length of time physical restraint was necessary.

(4) The student's behavior during restraint.

It must be remembered that these suggested behavioral interventions are only one set of a broad range of possible procedures. Selection and use of any behavioral techniques should be done judiciously.

Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1

PROCEDURES FOR USING PHYSICAL MANAGEMENT

I. Procedures for control

A. To escort a student.

The main position for all that follows to be beside and slightly behind the student. Use no more force than necessary.

1. Lightly grasp the student's arm above the elbow from the back, the left arm with your left hand, or the right arm with your right.

2. If more guidance is needed, put the other arm around the student's back and rest that hand on the student's hip.

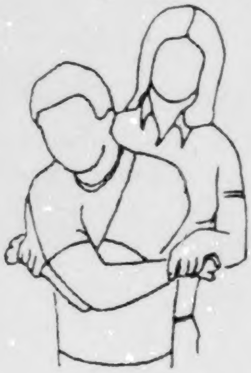
3. Move steadily and keep talking calmly and reassuringly.

B. To control a student.

If the student must be more firmly wrapped up, move from the position as described above.

1. Move the arm that is being held above the elbow across the student's body and secure it by moving the hand from the student's hip to the wrist of the held arm. The other hand can move down on the student's same arm. Now the student is surrounded by both of your arms, and one of his arms is held across his body by both your hands.

2. Maintain your position behind but still slightly to one side of the student. This will be the opposite side of the student's other arm which is still free. There is not much that arm can do except flail around behind and reach for your hair -- keep your head out of reach. If the free hand comes down to the front within reach, you may grasp its wrist with the same hand you first used to grasp the elbow. Then you will have the student wrapped up with his arms crossed in front of him.



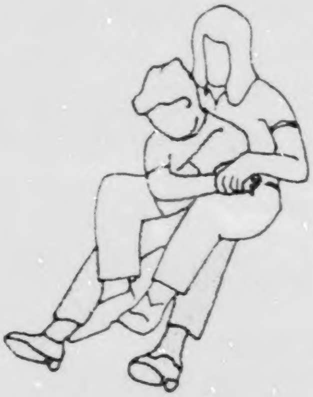
D. To deal with a frontal confrontation.

It may not work to start from a position behind and to the side of the student. The student may turn to face you as you approach. If you must control her from a face-to-face position, turn her by grasping her right wrist with your right hand and pulling it to your right. As she turns, you place yourself behind her and work to wrap her up as above.

E. To take down a struggling student.

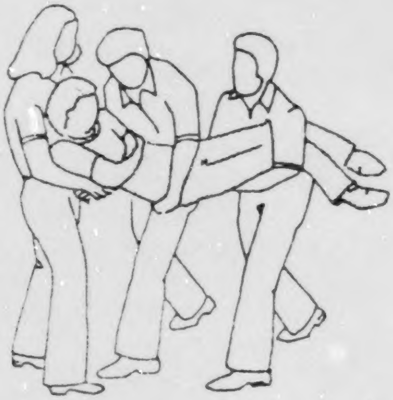
From the same position, behind the student with his arms wrapped up, press your knee into the back of his so that they buckle. At the same time, step backwards and let him slide slowly down your front and thigh. Once he is down, you stay on one knee and tighten your wrap-up hold.

To control kicking, you may wrap up his legs with yours. If help arrives and continuing restraint is necessary, your helpers may move in from the direction of the student's head and hold the legs or lie across them.



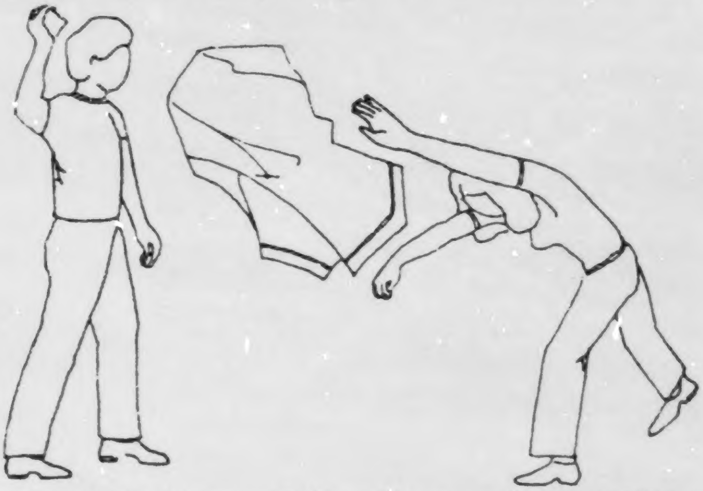
F. To move a student.

If you have to move the student, you must have two helpers to keep the waist from buckling and the arms, head and feet still.



II. Procedures for protection.

These are too numerous and detailed to cover here. If in your job situation it seems likely that you will encounter acts of severe aggression, you must acquire self-defense skills through a thorough training regimen. If you are not prepared effectively to control such a situation (and most of us are not), provide for your own safety first. When possible, use common-sense tricks to distract the aggressor so you can run for help. For instance, suddenly tossing a piece of clothing or some papers in the face of someone approaching may give you a moment's advantage so you can start for the door.

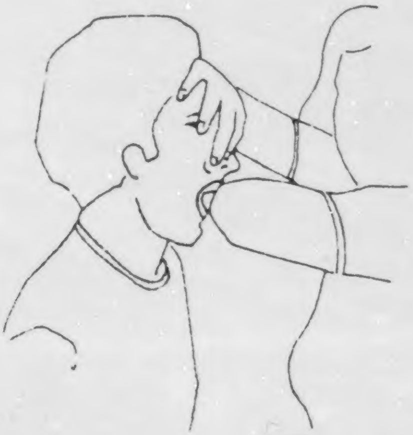


Know your physical limitations and do not try an intervention unless you know it will work (unless, of course, its that or nothing).

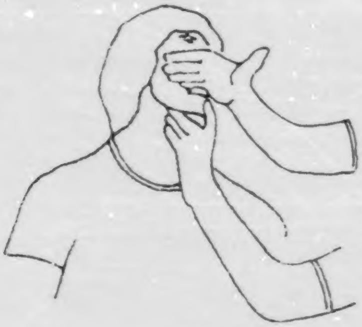
A few protection ideas are:

A. Biting.

1. If the student has her mouth full of your arm, it will probably work to hold her nose. She will open her mouth to breathe.



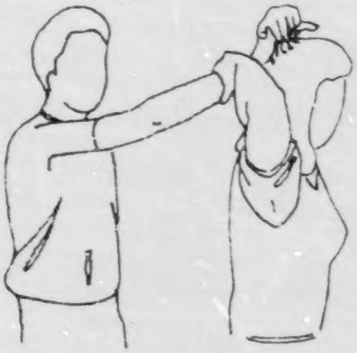
2. You or a helper may pull the student's head back, stretching the neck muscles, and then pull the chin down and remove the bitten part.



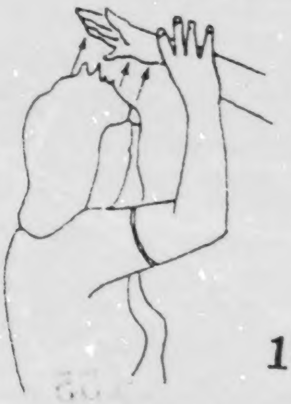
3. The application of pressure points below the jaw will work but must be learned under supervision if serious injury to the student is to be avoided.

B. Hair pulling.

1. If the student is not also kicking and hitting and is just holding onto your hair, pull the hand toward your scalp to reduce the pain and, with the other hand, pry the fingers away one at a time. A helper is nice.



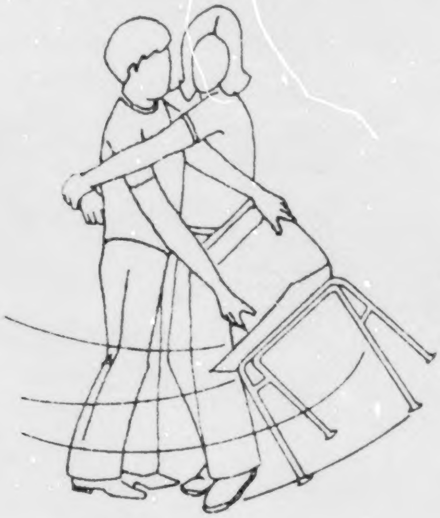
2. If the student is also rambunctious, try to get an immediate release by triggering his release mechanism -- give him a sharp slap just above the underside of the wrist.

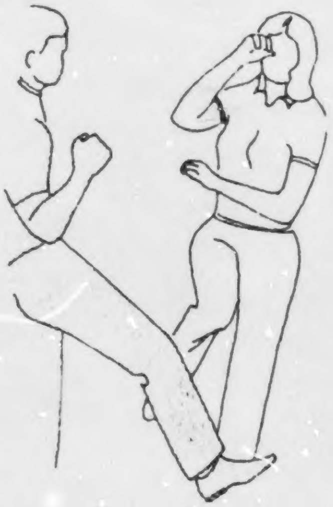


3. Other methods require training and practice.

C. Swinging objects.

The general idea here, whether it be to block a kick or to avoid a swinging chair, is to move quickly inside the arc of the swing rather than to wait to get hit.





Then you try to maneuver into position to wrap-up the student. Again, prior practice will help!

The illustrations are from the manual to a film called Crycon - the Concept of Classroom Crisis Control distributed by Motorola Teleprograms, Inc., 4825 N. Scott Street, Schiller Park, IL 60176.

Other ideas are from Client Management Techniques: A Unique Concept Using a Graded System of Non-Aggressive Client Control, P.O. Box 1921, Richardson, TE 75080. These people offer complete workshops for staff members of residential settings.

Provided by Mark Cannon, ED Consultant, Keystone Area Education Agency

TEACHING CONTROL STRATEGIES

Teaching/control strategies involve physically controlling a child's behavior which may be aggressive-disruptive as well as teach him/her new and appropriate classroom behaviors. They also may decrease behaviors and therefore have an element of aversion to them. These techniques should only be used when reinforcement strategies and/or mildly aversive strategies such as penalties or response-costs have failed to be successful in managing the child's behavior. These strategies must also be used only when the teacher is in full control of his/her own behavior.

Some teaching/control strategies are used as a method to teach a child time out behavior. The primary objective in these situations would be to have the child time himself out on the cue from the teacher.

Teaching/control strategies should never be used as a solo intervention, but should be paired with positive reinforcement for incompatible behaviors which need to be increased in the classroom. These strategies should not be used with children who are too large to easily manage.

Target behaviors for teaching/control strategies should only be aggressive disruptive behaviors. They may include:

a) physically attacking another person,

b) breaking school property,

c) physically hurting self,

d) breaking other people's property,

e) striking or hitting inanimate objects,

f) throwing objects,

g) loud verbal abuse, including profanity, and

h) other serious behaviors which have been unresponsive to other forms of behavior management

Cornering:

Procedures for use:

I. Before incident occurs

  A. Establish target behaviors for intervention use.

  B. Pair that behavior with incompatible behaviors to be increased through positive reinforcement.

  C. Explain to the child when and for what behaviors cornering will be used.

D. Point out the corner which will be used for the strategy.

II. When tne incident occurs

A. Identify the specific behavior to the child. Use a matter-of-fact voice. Dont' argue.

B. Cue: "Go to the corner".

C. If child does not follow through after the teacher's cue, physically assist him to the corner.

III. Physical assistance

A. Grasp the child's left arm and place right hand on right hip.

B. Move the child swiftly to the designated corner.

C. Place arms above the head and secure. Do not yank on the arms. An alternative to placing the hands and arms above the head may be having the child in a basket hold.

D. Use the hip if necessary to assist in securing a child in the corner.

E. Do not talk to the child while he is in the corner for the designated time.

F. Never hold the child in the corner over two minutes.

G. Request child to perform a desired behavior.

H. If he or she follows through with the desired behavior, reinforce it.

I. If child continues to exhibit target behavior and is obviously not ready to perform appropriately, repeat this sequence starting with A. of II.

The primary objective of cornering is to establish a stand-out (time out) within the classroom setting. The procedures for dunking have the primary objective of shaping in-seat time out or getting the child to put his head on his desk when a behavior violation occurs.

Procedures for dunking:

I. Before incident occurs

A. Establish target behaviors for intervention use.

B. Pair these targets with incompatible behaviors to be increased through positive reinforcement.

C. Explain to the child when they will be used.

II. When the incident occurs

A. Identify the specific behavior to the child. Use a matter-of-fact voice. Dont' argue.

B. Cue: "Put your head down".

C. If cue is not followed, physically assist the child through the behavior.

III. Physical assistance

A. Place yourself behind the child, slide chair out from the table with one hand on the child's shoulder and one on the back of the chair. Be sure the child is completely clear of his table. If the child is seated at a desk, turn him to the side of the desk so there is not an object in front of him.

B. Place your hand on the back of the student's head and gently push the head down into his lap and between his knees. If the child cannot be turned to the side in his chair grasp his two wrists and place his arms on the desk in front of him and place his head on top of his arms.

C. Do not talk to the child for a designated period of time. Never hold the child in this position over two minutes.

D. At the end of the two minutes request the child to perform a desired behavior.

E. If he/she follows through the desired behavior reinforce it.

F. If child continues to exhibit target behavior repeat the sequence starting with the cue "Put your head down".

Restitution:

The general rationale of the restitution procedure is to educate the student to assume responsibility for the disruption caused by his/her misbehavior by requiring him/her to restore disturbed situation to a greatly improved state. The general method for accomplishing this objective is to (a) identify the specific and general disturbance created by the misbehavior and (b) to require the offender to correct these disturbances whenever he/she misbehaves. The restitutive acts are designed to have the following characteristics: (a) The restitution should be directly related to the misbehavior. (b) The restitution should be required immediately after the misbehavior, thereby accomplishing two objectives. First, extinction of the offense will be provided since the offender will have little or not time to enjoy (be reinforced by) the product of the aggressive act. Secondly, greater inhibition of future misbehavior should result since immediate negative consequences are known to be more effective than nonimmediate consequences. (c) The restitution should be slightly extended in duration. While engaging in restitution, the student should not and cannot engage in other activities that may be reinforcing. Consequently, the restricition period constitutes a time out from reinforcement. (d) The student should be very actively performing in restitution without pausing.

IMPORTANT: AFTER CORNERING, DUNKING OR RESTITUTION, REINFORCE INCOMPATIBLE POSITIVE BEHAVIORS AT THE FIRST OPPORTUNITY THEY OCCUR.

Provided by: Mark Cannon, ED Consultant, Keystone Area Education Agency

SETTING THE SCENE TO AVOID PROBLEMS

I. Avoid the need to use physical control

A. Use verbal means to deflect power struggles.

Physical supremacy is power in its most primitive form. All people must have a sense of having power and especially in adolescence, power becomes a central need and motivator. A major problem is that many of our students have had little experience of positive, appropriate use of power and do not know how to gain it except through threat and aggression.

Try these techniques to defuse an explosive confrontation and open up ways for talk instead of action.

1. Verbally acknowledge the student's physical power -- "John, you're right - I can't possibly make you do such a task."
2. Describe what is going on instead of making demands about what's to happen next. -- "Mary, you seem to be really upset by that rule. You've torn your point sheet up and thrown your pen."
3. Contrive a way to give an emotionally aroused student some space and time to cool down. -- "Class, Tim is having a rough morning. Please walk down to the art room and when the classroom is settled again I'll send for you."
4. State a well-known and previously discussed classroom rule in as non-threatening and matter of fact tone as possible. -- "Sally, the rule is Hands to Yourself -- you follow the rule, you get points. If you don't you lose 10."

B. Try non-forcible physical interventions before resorting to force.

1. Be aware of stance and gesture. Approaching the student head-on may provoke aggression. A quiet, non-threatening stance is best - hands clasped or arms folded low and in front are nonthreatening.
2. Be aware of position in the classroom. Stay somewhat to the student's side and place yourself between the student and the door -- not necessarily to block the exit, but to have it available for your safety.

C. Always bear these key points in mind.

1. Use the graded method of control, attempting the least amount of external control possible:
   a. gestural
   b. verbal
   c. body positioning
   d. physical touch
   e. forcible holding
   f. forcible movement.

2. Stay calm; don't overreact.

3. Talk to the student using his name in a calm, even voice.

4. Ask yourself these questions:

   a. Why do I want to move or control this student?
   b. How can I get this student to do what I want _without_ touching him?
   c. If I do physically touch the student, where and how will I touch him?
   d. Is there help close by or on the way?
   e. Who can get this student out of this behavior?
   f. What has worked in the past with this student?

5. DON'T TRY TO BE A HERO.

II. Be prepared for crisis control

Think through the answer to this question about your classroom environment and student group: -- "What's the worst that could happen?"

A. Prepare the environment.

If yours is a group where volatile or aggressive incidents may occur:

1. See that your classroom is _not isolated_ from other groups with adults present.

2. Consider room arrangement so that movement to the exits will be unobstructed.

3. Keep dangerous objects, e.g. scissors, put away.

4. Consider potential dangers of windows and arrange furniture so that student access is difficult.

5. If necessary, have a signal or telephone installed for calling for help.

B. Make a plan.

Translate "the worsts that could happen" into concrete procedures:

1. Arrange for adequate adult support at all times, from within immediate access.

2. Without setting as an expectation that such an occurrence is likely, make sure that school personnel and parents understand that the bottom line of your classroom management system is that in the event of a crisis threatening the safety of the environment, the police will be called.

C. Practice the procedures.

Make sure that everyone who is part of your crisis contingency:

1. Understands that the goals of the procedures are to manage crises in ways that protect the students and others from harm, not to force compliance by "showing who's boss".
2. Knows his or her role in the crisis plan and has discussed it with others to be involved.
3. Has received adequate training, including practice sessions, if the crisis role is ever projected to include physical interventions.

Provided by: Mark Cannon, ED Consultant, Keystone Area Education Agency

FIVE GOOD REASONS

Not to Use Physical Management Techniques as a Regular Part of a Classroom Management Plan to Force Compliance by Children 9 and Over

1. It models the use of physical power as a problem-solving technique.

   Once students reach pre-adolescence, the size and strength differential between adults-in-general and children-in-general becomes variable. Physical managementnt tends to change from expectable adult control to angry power struggles; someone "wins" and gets his way. Winner or loser, the student learns that what counts is who's bigger or more aggressive.

2. It establishes physical size and strength as the deciding variable as to who will be physically controlled and who will be ignored or dismissed.

   Unless there is a constant presence of large adults or of some who are thoroughly trained in martial arts, the contingencies for little students are likely to be different than those for big, tough ones.

3. It increases the likelihood of student aggression.

   Research shows clearly that aggressive behaviors increase when aggression is modeled by others or engaged in by the aggressor. It is a myth that people have a certain amount of aggression that they must and will "get rid of" by expressing it one way or another. The best way to decrease one's aggressiveness is to neither witness it nor participate in it for as long as possible. A confrontive environment stimulates rather than represses anti-social behavior.

4. It gives students an exaggerated and irresponsible view of their own power.

   Students, even relatively small ones, are capable of tremendous strength in an all-out effort. If one has problems winning control or, even worse, if two adults are required for control, some anti-social students begin to brag about that as a personal triumph. "It takes 2 or 3 of them suckers to control me!"

5. Someone sometime will be seriously injured.

   50,000 teachers a year are injured severely enough to require treatment at a hospital. No one keeps such careful count of injured students. The safety risks to both are increased when physical confrontation is a norm; the legal risks are similarly increased.

* * * * * * * * * * *

Some other ideas:

1. Use verbal problem-solving techniques.
2. Use the logical consequence of calling the police if assault or vandalism charges are appropriate.
3. Have the student escorted out of school, contact home and insist on a parent conference before school re-entry.
4. Establish group training sessions to teach assertiveness rather than aggressiveness.
5. Help students gain self-control through self-instruction training.
6. Set up meaningful programs for students to make restitution for damages or injuries.

Provided by: Polly Arp, ED Supervisor

PHYSICAL RESTRAINT LOG

Pupil: ______________________________ Teacher: ______________________________

PHYSICAL RESTRAINT NUMBER	DATE	BEHAVIOR/TASK/TEACHER DIRECTIVE PRECEEDING PHYSICAL RESTRAINT	TIME BEGAN	TIME ENDED	TOTAL TIME

PARENTAL PERMISSION OBTAINED ________ YES ________ NO

DATE ______________________________

BY WHOM ______________________________

Provided by: Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone Area Education Agency

FORWARD

The entire realm of the affective--that area dealing with the student's emotions, perceptions of himself, ways of dealing with others--has come into its own in the past few years. Materials started to appear on the market in the form of books, kits, films and programs that purported to be a "total" affective curriculum ensuring the emotional well being of the student. Although many of these materials have some good features, few of them offer the diversity or variety of format to meet the needs of the heterogenous group of students known as the behavior disordered.

The purpose of this section is simply to provide a variety of activities without endorsing any particular "school" of affective curriculum. It has been suggested that an eclectic approach, i.e., drawing from many different affective curricula, helps meet the diverse needs of the student as well as providing variety and novelty.

In presenting the materials, it is good to include role playing, group discussion, individual activities, "hands-on" activities and paper-pencil tasks among others. This helps the format to retain novelty and interest to the student as well as to the teacher.

This section has much in common with the sections of the handbook entitled "Therapeutic Approaches" and "Alternative Curriculum". The reader is referred to these sections for further information.

CONTENTS

RESOURCES

- Items available through Special Education Curriculum Lab
- Films available through Keystone Media Center
- Small media available through Keystone Media Center

SELF-CONCEPT

Improving Self-Concept in the Classroom
Five Keys to Better Self-Concept

VALUES

Child Stress Scale
Values Attitude Response Questionnaire
Values and You

SELF-AWARENESS

Sentence Completions
Self-Awareness Activity
Personality Trait Inventory
Weekly Reaction Sheet

AFFECTIVE ACTIVITIES

Poor Scholar's Soliloquy
Please Hear What I'm Not Saying

DECISION MAKING

Winter Survival Exercise
Decision-Making
Conflict Resolution

RESOURCES

The following is a list of materials available through the Curriculum Laboratory, Special Education Division, Educational Services/Media Services.

American Guidance Service
- Developing Understanding of Self and Others
- 1 Multimedia Kit - DUSCO Kit K-2, Primary - Intermediate, 1973
- Toward Affective Development

Argus Communications
- 4 Textbooks - I Am Loveable and Capable, Junior High, Senior High, 1973
- Lifeline Program: I Am Lovable and Capable,
- - If you Don't Know Where You're Going . . .,
- - Developing Better Personal Relationships
- - Meeting Yourself Half Way
- - Taking Charge of Your Life
- Am I OK?
- Making Sense of Our Lives
- Why Am I Afraid to Tell You Who I Am?
- Effective Communication

Bureau of Business Practice, Inc.
- 1 Professional Reference - The Human Side of Teaching, 1970

Center for Teacher Education
- PETSS Project
- 2 Training References - Enhancing Self-Worth

Developmental Learning Materials
- 1 CARD - Alternative Cards, Intermediate, 1976
- - Affective Learning Featuring Mummenschanz

The Education Research Council of America
- 1 Teacher's Guide - Dealing With Causes of Behavior, Primary, 1972
- 1 Worktext, 1 Teacher's Guide - Dealing With Causes of Behavior, Intermediate, 1972
- 1 Worktext, 1 Teacher's Guide, 1 Test - Dealing With Causes of Behavior, Intermediate - Junior High, 1972
- 1 Worktext, 1 Teacher's Guide - ME: The New Model, Senior High, 1973

Educational Activities
- ARK-Self Know Yourself
- Getting It Together is Life Itself
- Teaching Good Manners and Behavior
- Get In Touch With Your Emotions
- Teaching Children Values - Primary
- Teaching Children Values Elementary 4-7
- "Trouble"

Educational Design, Inc.
- 1 Workbook - Me and Others, Intermediate - Junior High - Senior High, 1976

Educational Insights
1 Duplicating Masters - All About Me, Primary, 1978

Educational Materials
- Games
- L-LAB
- A-LAB

Educational Service, Inc.
The Spice Series
1 Activity Book - Pride, Primary, Intermediate, Junior High, 1971

Feeling Good Associates
1 CARD - Feeling Good Playing Cards, Primary, Intermediate, 1977

Globe Book Company
5 Worktext, 1 Worktext Teacher's Edition - A Matter for Judgement, Junior High, Senior High, 1979

Human Development Training Institute
- Complete Innerchange Program
- Magic Circle Resource Set
- The Innerchange Experience Book
- Reaching Teenagers
- Learning to Think and Choose
- The Other Side of the Report Card: A How-to-do-it
- Program for Affective Education
- Affective Measures
- Imagine That

Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company
- Teaching Children Self-Control
- Social Learning Curriculum

Miliken Publishing Company
- Activities for Developing Positive Self-Awareness Grades (4-6)

Milton Bradley Company
1 Story Card - Creative Thinking Pictures, Intermediate, Junior High, 1977

Minneapolis Public Schools Special Education Division
1 Transparencies - Opaque Overhead Picture Stories, Primary, Intermediate

Pennant Press
2 Professional References - Becoming Aware of Values, 1973

Prentice Hall Inc.
- 100 Ways to Enhance Self-Concept in the Classroom: A Handbook for Teachers and Parents
- Glad to be Me by Elkins

Research Press
- Skillstreaming the Adolescent
- How to Use Contingency Contracting in the Classroom
- Teaching Social Behavior to Young Children

SRA
- About You
- Discovering Yourself

Sagamore Institute
- Negative Criticism
- Self Assessment Scales
- Exploring Your Self-Esteem
- I am Lovable and Capable
- Vulture
- Meeting the Needs of Children

Frank Schaffer Publications
    Activity Cards for Fun
    1 Reproducible Activity Book - All About Me, Preschool, 1973

Tri-Company
    1 Professional Reference - Feelings: What Causes them (VTC)

John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
    1 Professional Reference - How to Talk with Children (and other people), 1973

Youth Research Center
    1 Activity Book - Peer Program for Youth

RESOURCES - FILMS

These films are on various affective topics and are available through the Keystone Media Center (see catalog for ordering instructions).

21949	A-M-E-R-I-C-A-N-S	PIJ
11493	Alice In Wonderland: Lesson-Appreciating	PI
22008	Battered Woman: Behind Closed Doors	S
30777	Big Henry And The Polka Dot Kid	IJS
20453	Bread & Butterflies: Me, Myself and Maybe	IJS
20557	Bread & Butterflies: People Need People	IJS
21361	Cipher In The Snow	ST
21992	Classifying: Classifying & Stereotyping	I
21267	Free To Be You And Me: Expectations	I
21268	Free To Be You And Me: Friendship	I
21269	Free To Be You And Me: Independence	I
10157	Getting Along With Others	P
11439	"Good Sport Game"	P
26340	Guidance for the 70's: Kids, Pressures, Parents	JS
26350	Guidance for the 70's: Self Esteem	JS
21661	Guidance for the 70's: The Blame Game	JS
21664	Guidance for the 70's: Yourself Together	JS
11116	How To Say No	JS
21939	I Am How I Feel	P
21938	I Am How I Look	P
22034	If At First You Don't Succeed	PIJ
10541	I'm Feeling Scared	P
13440	It's Your Move-Decisions for Discussion	JS
10319	Learning From Disappointments	I
20626	Listen, Listen	JS
20917	Making A Decision Is	JS
27730	Me	PI
14590	Me And The Monsters	PI
10486	Our Class Works Together	P
11441	"Respecting Others Game"	P
26760	Sense of Purpose	JSA
26770	Spaces Between People	JST
27740	They	PIJS
21241	To Be A Man	JS
21242	To Be A Woman	JS
21243	To Be Growing Older	S
30155	Values and Goals - A Way of Going	ST
10107	Values: Understanding Ourselves	I
11433	What Color Is Skin?	P
22075	What Is A Friend?	PI
10387	What To Do About Upset Feelings	P
30861	Where All Things Belong	S
11434	Who Do You Tell?	PI
27800	You	PI
11812	Your Self Image	P

RESOURCES - SMALL MEDIA MATERIALS

These small media materials (tapes, cassettes, videotape, etc.) on affective topics are available through the Keystone Media Center (see catalog for ordering instructions).

KM 0616	About Girls (For Boys)	IJ
KM 0617	About Men (For Girls)	IJ
KM 2112-2117	Adolescent Skill Building	JS
KM 1376	Becoming Youself (3 parts)	I
20918	Beep Beep	PI
VT 0010	Bread and Butterflies: Program 1	I
VT 0015	Bread and Butterflies: Program 6	I
VT 0016	Bread and Butterflies: Program 7	I
VT 0017	Bread and Butterflies: Program 8	I
KM 0427	Developing Values	JS
KM 1132	Early Childhood Series Pt. 1 About Me	P
KM 1133	Early Childhood Series Pt. 2 World Around Me	P
KM 1134	Early Childhood Series Pt. 3 I Talk, I Think	P
11753	Envy	I
KM 0508	Everything But	JS
KM 0531	Failure: A Step Towards Growth	JS
KM 9302	Focus of Self Development: Involvement	P
KM 9303	Focus of Self Development: Responding	PI
KM 0429	Forming Beliefs	JS
KM 0395	Guess Who's In A Group	P
KM 1316	Hairy, Fumble, and Bird (2 parts)	P
KM 1167	Hard to Feel You're Somebody	IJS
21428	Hideout	P
KM 1166	How Can You Work Things Out	PI
KM 1165	How Would You Feel	PI
VT 0005	Inside-Out	PI
VT 0007	Inside-Out	PI
VT 0008	Inside-Out	PI
VT 0006	Inside-Out	PI
KM 1172	Kindle 3: Getting Along	P
KM 1173	Kindle 4: Mixing In	P
KM 1174	Kindle 5: I Can Tell	P
KM 1317	Labels & Reinforcement of Sex Role	JST
KM 0326	The Most Important Person-Attitudes	P
KM 0332	The Most Important Person-Body Movement	P
KM 0329	The Most Important Person-Creative Expression	P
KM 0327	The Most Important Person-Feelings	P
KM 0331	The Most Important Person-Getting Along	P
KM 0334	The Most Important Person-Identity	P
KM 2193	The Poetry of Rock: A Reflection of Human Values	JS
15090	This Is My Friendship	PI
21247	To Be A Friend	JS
KM 9202	Toward Affective Development	I
KM 1790	Value Development Series (Part 1 & 2)	PI
KM 0620	Values	S
13080	Values-Being Friends	I
13090	Values-Cooperation	PI

13100	Values-Playing Fair	PI
14330	Values-The Right Thing To Do	I
30658	Violin	I
21256	Warty The Toad	P
KM 0601	We're Growing Up	PI
KM 0393	What Do You Expect of Others	P
KM 0396	What Happens Between People	P
11248	What Will Barbara Do?	IJ
11249	What Will Kathy Do?	IJ
11251	What Will Red Do?	IJ
KM 0074	Who Am I?	PI
KM 0415	Who Am I? Kindle I	P
KM 0533	Your Personality: The You Others Know	JS

AREA: Professional Development
SOURCE: Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone Area Education Agency
PROCEDURE: This is simply a checklist for the teacher to assess the classroom atmosphere in terms of its ability to stimulate a positive self-concept. If a majority of these aren't answered affirmatively, the teacher may want to turn these into goals for professional development.

IMPROVING SELF-CONCEPT IN THE CLASSROOM

A Self-Test

yes	no	
		1. Do you personalize instruction?
		2. Do you plan and analyze tasks to assure success? (Built-in success should be 80% or higher, at least initially)
		3. Do you call on students to participate only when you know they are prepared?
		4. Do you use plenty of positive reinforcement? Do you tell the students what you like, not what is wrong?
		5. Do you realistically assess strengths and assist the child in becoming aware of his assets?
		6. When necessary to correct or discipline, do you do so individually, never in front of others?
		7. Do you call attention to the child's strengths, not only individually, but in front of others and the group?
		8. Do you establish a supportive environment in which the student is respected, ideas are heard and tried, and opportunities to have input into own program are provided?
		9. Do you establish an atmosphere which encourages the shy child to participate by accepting comments, rather than saying No, that's not right, etc?
		10. Do you evaluate work from the standpoint of what is right rather than what is wrong?
		11. Do you help parents to recognize that each child is unique and functions in terms of his self-concept?
		12. Do you look for the opportunity for the low self-concept child to help another child in a skill, game or academic subject?
		13. Do you aid in the development of at least one mutual friendship if necessary?

______ ______ 14. Do you develop in the child a willingness to accept help from others and a true understanding of "learning" and progress?

______ ______ 15. Do you post and use classroom rules so you can consistently apply the predetermined consequences?

AREA. Professional Development/Self-Concept
SOURCE. Submitted by Lindy DeVoss, Supervisor, Keystone AEA

Five Keys To Better Self-Concept (Felker)

Key 1: Adults, Praise Yourselves

Unfortunately many of us teachers have adopted the idea that it is not modest to say things about oneself. We often feel uncomfortable saying nice things about ourselves. Modeling has been shown to be a very effective technique. Therefore, we teachers need to learn self-praise as a teaching technique. (A) Begin self-praise by praising your work and then move to praising personal qualities. (B) Begin with nonpersonal accomplishments rather than personal qualities. (C) Show the children exactly what you're doing. (D) Practice self-praise internally. This is a new experience for many of us, which needs to be practiced. (E) Don't expect immediate changes in yourself or your students.

Key 2: Help Children Evaluate Realistically

Unrealistically high goals set an individual up for immediate failure. We need to remember that perfection is nearly an unattainable goal. Many children tend to be overly harsh in their self-evaluations and they tend to give themselves fewer rewards than adults would deem appropriate. Perfection should not be the basis of evaluation, because perfection is unrealistic. Evaluations should be in relation to past accomplishments of the individual and not necessarily to the class.

Key 3: Teach Children to Set Realistic Goals

This is related to realistic evaluation in that the goal operates many times as the standard against which the individual evaluates himself. If the goal is unreasonable or unrealistic, the individual is in a sense adopting a standard of evaluation which is unrealistic. The outcome of unrealistically high or unrealistically low goals would likely be perceived as a failure. The child's goal should be one which is in view. The use of charts with Key 3 is helpful.

Key 4: Teach Children to Praise Themselves

In the context of self-enhancement, the pupil must become his own evaluator and reinforcer. Each of the previous three keys is incorporated in this step.

Key 5: Teach Children to Praise Others

It has been found that self-praise and praise of others are positively related (Coons, 1967). When people are reinforcing of themselves, they are generally reinforcing to others. Praising others brings praise and reinforcement in return. Children need to learn how to praise others by being taught what to ignore, how to handle failure situations, and when to reinforce.

AREA: Professional Development

PROCEDURE: To help the teacher be aware of various stress-inducing variables in the student's life that may greatly affect emotional well being and performance in the classroom.

CHILD STRESS SCALE

How your child reacts to certain events depends on his coping abilities, but there are a number of circumstances that are universally stressful for children. Your child will need your support during them.

Dr Kaoru Yamamato asked 367 children in the fourth through sixth grades to rate - from one to seven - the stressfulness of a number of events. From their collective reactions, he constructed this table. Dr. Yamamoto advises parents that a child's stresses frequently have their own logic. For example, a child may interpret needing eyeglasses as evidence that he or she is going blind (highly stressful); or a child may conclude that his or her mother is "lost" (highest stress rating), after being separated from her for five minutes in a supermarket.

Life Events	Stress
new baby sibling	1.27
giving class report	2.58
going to dentist	2.73
losing in game	3.16
picked last on team	3.30
not making 100	3.75
scary dream	4.08
move to new school	4.60
ridiculed in class	5.28
getting lost	5.49
having an operation	5.51
sent to principal	5.75
a poor report card	6.23
suspected of lying	6.53
caught in theft	6.63
parental fights	6.71
wetting in class	6.74
academic retainment (not promoted)	6.82
going blind	6.86
losing parent	6.90

AREA: Values Clarification
LEVEL: JS
PROCEDURE: This may be used as an individual assignment or as a tool to stimulate group discussion.

VALUES ATTITUDE RESPONSE QUESTIONNAIRE

Yes No 1. Do you need someone to love you?
Yes No 2. Does saluting the American flag have meaning for you?
Yes No 3. Do you like to read about well-known people?
Yes No 4. Do you like to smoke pot?
Yes No 5. Do you find it easy to forgive your friends?
Yes No 6. Do you want equal opportunities for all people?
Yes No 7. Do you like to be nice to your parents?
Yes No 8. If you had your way, would you do away with all rules concerning the way people dress at school?
Yes No 9. Do you think policemen are "pigs"?
Yes No 10. Do you think regular church attendance would be good for you?
Yes No 11. Is it very important to you to get a good education?
Yes No 12. Do you like to have many friends?
Yes No 13. Does your home give you a feeling of security?
Yes No 14. Would you break a law that you thought was wrong or unfair?
Yes No 15. Are you happy with yourself most of the time?
Yes No 16. Would you like to seek full-time employment at this time?
Yes No 17. Do you feel your parents love you?
Yes No 18. If drafted into the military service, would you serve your tour of duty?
Yes No 19. Do you like people to notice you?
Yes No 20. Would you take a "trip" on drugs?
Yes No 21. Do you respect the opinions of your friends?
Yes No 22. Would you mind going to school with students of a different color than you?
Yes No 23. Do you think parents fail to listen to teenagers?
Yes No 24. Do you think school rules are too strict?
Yes No 25. Do you think most laws are unnecessary?
Yes No 26. Is it important for you to believe in God?
Yes No 27. Do you plan to attend college?
Yes No 28. Do you like to be with your friends most of the time?
Yes No 29. Is it important to you to succeed in life?
Yes No 30. Are you willing to take on the duties as well as the rights and privileges of citizenship?
Yes No 31. Do you like to start an argument just to see what happens?
Yes No 32. Would you accept a part-time job at this time?
Yes No 33. Is there someone you love very much?
Yes No 34. Do you think you would burn your draft card?
Yes No 35. Do you like people who flatter you?
Yes No 36. Would you smoke "pot" if a friend offered it to you?
Yes No 37. Do you think everyone should have a right to state his opinions even though you might disagree?
Yes No 38. Do you feel that people in minority groups are being discriminated against?
Yes No 39. Do you like to smoke cigatettes?

Yes No 40. Do you like to drink alcoholic beverages?

Yes No 41. Do you believe war is right in some cases?

Yes No 42. Do you trust politicians?

Yes No 43. Do you throw trash on the ground?

Yes No 44. Would you like to help feed the poor?

Yes No 45. Can you talk to your parents at least ten minutes without being stopped or interrupted?

Yes No 46. Do you feel it is necessary to have school rules?

Yes No 47. Do you appreciate law enforcement officers?

Yes No 48. Do you attend church regularly?

Yes No 49. Do you think learning is worthwhile?

Yes No 50. Do you want people to like you?

Yes No 51. Do you like being with a group of friends?

Yes No 52. Do you like to be with members of the opposite sex?

Yes No 53. Do you think you are attractive?

Yes No 54. Do you like to work?

Yes No 55. Would you smoke a cigarette if a friend offered you one?

Yes No 56. Would you drink an alcoholic beverage if a friend offered you one?

Yes No 57. Would you kill in self-defense?

Yes No 58. Would you kill in war if ordered to do so?

Yes No 59. Do you feel our lawmakers are honest?

Yes No 60. Are you really concerned about cleaning up our water and air?

Yes No 61. Do you think most laws are fair?

Yes No 62. Do you want all your teachers to like you?

Yes No 63. Are you concerned about poor people?

Yes No 64. Do you like most of the people you know?

Yes No 65. Do you think taking LSD is dangerous?

Yes No 66. Do you think it would make you happy to someday be married and have a family?

Yes No 67. In spite of all the criticisms, do you think America is a pretty good place to live?

Yes No 68. Would you like to live away from your parents?

Yes No 69. Do you like to tell people what you think of them even though it is bad?

Yes No 70. Do you like to break school rules just to see what will happen?

Yes No 71. Do you think it would be greatly rewarding to spend one's life working to make the world a better place to live?

Yes No 72. Do you have friends of other races?

Yes No 73. Do you think you are a good citizen?

Yes No 74. Is having money important to you?

Yes No 75. Are you happy most of the time?

GOALS QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire below includes a list of end and mean goals. Some you probably value more than others. How would you rank these goals in the order of their importance to you?

End Goals

______ An Exciting Life
______ A World at Peace
______ Pleasure
______ Wealth
______ Family Security
______ Social Recognition
______ Freedom
______ A World of Beauty
______ Happiness
______ Mature Love
______ Self-Respect
______ Inner Harmony
______ Wisdom
______ True Friendship
______ Equality
______ Salvation
______ National Security
______ A Comfortable Life
______ A Sense of Accomplishment
______ Service to Mankind

Mean Goals

______ Honest
______ Ambitious
______ Responsible
______ Patient
______ Forgiving
______ Courageous
______ Helpful
______ Broadminded
______ Clean
______ Capable
______ Kind
______ Loving
______ Cheerful
______ Polite
______ Charitable
______ Independent
______ Intellectual
______ Logical
______ Obedient
______ Imaginative

AREA. Values Clarification
LEVEL: JS
SOURCE: Ellen McGinnis, ED Consultant, AEA 10

STUDENT HANDOUT

VALUES AND YOU

The activities in this section are designed to help you examine the traits and values which make up your personality. It is important for you to remember that there are no right or wrong answers to the questions and other exercises listed on the next few pages and that honest answers will allow you to realistically see your whole potential.

Part of being an individual is that you are different; and because you are different, you will respond to the activities in ways that are uniquely your own. Some of your answers will be similar to those of your friends; but if the career choices, family backgrounds, and personal experiences of all of you are not the same, many of your answers will differ.

Definition of a Value:

A value is a belief. For example, the decision to use returnable or non-returnable bottles is based upon the values we place on ecology.

We are not born with values, but it isn't long afterwards that we begin to develop values. We develop values about education, recreation, work, and so on, from our parents, friends, brothers, sisters, teachers, politicians, and many others. We also learn about values from our own experiences. Some values change as we grow older. Many young children feel that their family and friends are most important to them; during later years, they may value independence more highly.

During class discussions and as you complete the exercises in this section you should find that your values determine what you think of yourselves and others and they play an important role in the decisions you must make every day.

STUDENT HANDOUT

VALUE SALE

If you were given $200 and were asked to buy those things that are most important to you, which of the following items would you buy? Fill in the amount of money that you would spend on each item. Write a "0" on the line opposite an item which is not important to you. You may fill in as many blanks as you desire, but must spend your full $200.

To be a president ____________________

To be a professional sports player ____________________

To have a beautiful home ____________________

To have faith ____________________

To be the wealthiest person in the world ____________________

To be attractive ____________________

To have a good body build ____________________

To care for others ____________________

To be happy with yourself ____________________

To have a perfect romance ____________________

To help others ____________________

To have a close family relationship ____________________

To have close friends ____________________

To have the profession of your choice ____________________

To be your own person ____________________

Other:____________________ ____________________

An item may represent values to different people. On the lines below, list the items you have purchased and match them with a value you think they represent. For example: president--power; romance--love; remember, there are no right or wrong answers.

1. ____________________ -- ____________________

2. ____________________ -- ____________________

3. ____________________ -- ____________________

4. ____________________ -- ____________________

5. ____________________ -- ____________________

STUDENT HANDOUT (Continued)

6. ______________________________ -- ______________________________

7. ______________________________ -- ______________________________

8. ______________________________ -- ______________________________

9. ______________________________ -- ______________________________

10. ______________________________ -- ______________________________

QUESTIONS

1. Are there any items that you did not want to buy? Why not?

2. How hard are you willing to work for the items you selected? How would you go about getting them?

AREA: Emotions/Fear
LEVEL: PI
PROCEDURE: This fairy tale is used to point out the difference between caution and fear. Caution can save us; fear can paralyze us. The story can be read with a discussion to follow.

THE STORY OF THE RABBITS AND THE FOX

There once were two rabbits and a fox who lived in the shady, cool of the forest. The first rabbit saw the fox and said, "Oh, there's a fox! I'll be eaten! I'd better run as fast as I can to get away from here!" And so he ran as fast as he could and escaped the hungry fox.

The second rabbit saw the fox and said, "There's a hungry fox! Foxes eat rabbits! I'd better run as fast as I can! But what if I can't run as fast as the fox? My mother always did say I wasn't a very fast rabbit. Oh, no, I know the fox will get me and eat me! What if . . . (chomp)"

AREA: Self-Awareness
LEVEL: I,J,S
PROCEDURE: Either as an individual or group sharing activity, the student tries to discover feelings and attitudes about himself/herself that might not have been previously realized. This is a good prelude to values clarification activities.

SENTENCE COMPLETIONS

(Complete the following sentences as rapidly as you can.
Be sure to complete every sentence.)

1. My schoolwork ____
2. The future ____
3. I want to know ____
4. Our family ____
5. I feel ____
6. Fighting ____
7. Much of the time ____
____
8. Money ____
9. If I ____
10. Work ____
11. I suffer ____
12. Friends ____
13. My mother ____
14. There are times ____
15. Eating ____
16. The training ____
17. My mind ____
18. I sleep ____
19. My greatest longing ____
____

20. God is ____________________

21. My imagination ____________________

22. Boys ____________________

23. My clothes ____________________

24. The laws we have ____________________

25. I fear ____________________

26. My greatest trouble ____________________
____

27. Earning my living ____________________

28. My dreams ____________________

29. I secretly ____________________

30. My stomach ____________________

31. I cannot understand what makes me ____________________
____

32. Other people ____________________

33. Religion ____________________

34. My worst ____________________

35. I am very ____________________

36. My childhood ____________________

37. My father ____________________

38. I envy ____________________

39. My eyes ____________________

40. At night ____________________

41. My looks ____________________

42. The dark ____________________

43. My chief worry ____________________

44. When I ____________________

45. My health ______________________________

46. I feel the most proud of ______________________________

____

47. Girls ______________________________

48. Death ______________________________

49. My greatest ambition ______________________________

50. I like best ______________________________

51. My habits ______________________________

52. I try to get ______________________________

53. Love ______________________________

54. I get pleasure from ______________________________

____

55. My teachers ______________________________

56. I am sorry ______________________________

57. At home ______________________________

58. I feel hurt ______________________________

59. Children ______________________________

60. I become embarrassed ______________________________

____

61. My head ______________________________

62. I am ashamed ______________________________

63. My education ______________________________

Write anything below that seems important to you.

AREA: Self-Awareness
LEVEL: I,J,S
PROCEDURE: Circle the 20 words which you feel best describe one of your classmates. On another sheet of paper, circle the 20 words which you feel best describe you. Student may want to illustrate those aspects of his/her personality as a follow-up activity.

Self-Awareness Activity

loud
artistic
dishonest
smart
quiet
talented
competitive
poised
cautious
clever
responsible
skinny
mature
reckless
committed
thoughtful
proud
tall
shy
spiteful
short
bossy
energetic
kind

clumsy
peaceful
mean
slim
charming
happy
well-dressed
crabby
polite
heavy
outspoken
two-faced
moody
husky
spiritual
selfish
stubborn
well-built
mouthy
concerned
muscular
conceited
respectful
honest

generous
sad
attractive
aggressive
friendly
nervous
talkative
impatient
loyal
organized
athletic
narrow-minded
prejudiced
gentle
hard-working
sloppy
funny
loving
firm
good-humored
lazy
warm
absent-minded
unselfish

AREA. Self-Awareness
LEVEL: JS
SOURCE: Ellen McGinnis, ED Consultant, AEA 10

PERSONALITY TRAIT INVENTORY

Many traits make up your personality. It is the combination of these traits that gives you your own unique personality. The following list of traits are characteristics we all have to varying degrees. Check those traits that you see in yourself. There are no right or wrong answers.

Likes to make people laugh _______
Likes to invent things _______
Likes to make up things _______
Likes to disagree _______
Likes to work with others _______
Likes to start new things _______
Is willing to wait for other people _______
Cares about others _______
Enjoys music _______
Is willing to listen to other people's ideas _______
Likes to work by yourself _______
Likes to do as many things as possible _______
Likes to meet people _______
Likes to participate in sports _______
Likes to compete with others _______
Likes to study _______
Tries to understand other people's feelings _______
Enjoys being with different types of people _______
Likes to make good grades _______

Look over the traits you have checked and try to summarize your personality in two or three brief sentences.

ME

We are all different -- yet we have similarities.

Have you ever taken time to think about yourself? Have you ever asked yourself what kind of person you are and what kind of person you would like to be? Take time now to think about yourself by answering the questions below?

1. Is it important for you to be like everyone else? Why?

2. Is it important for you to be different than your friends? Why?

3. What kind of person do you want to be?

4. Is the kind of person you want to be the kind of person you are? Why?

5. What would you have to do to be the kind of person you want to be? Is this a realistic goal for you?

6. What are the things you like most about yourself?

7. What are the things that bother you most about yourself?

8. In what ways do you think the answers to questions 6 and 7 will affect you in your job choice?

9. In what ways do you think the answers to questions 6 and 7 will affect your personal life?

10. To you, what does satisfaction mean?

11. To you, what does success mean?

12. How do you think the answers to questions 11 and 12 will affect your career choice?

AREA: Decision Making/Goal Setting
LEVEL: I,J,S
SOURCE: Mark Cannon, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1
PROCEDURE: As an end of the week activity or as the basis of a personal diary, the student introspects about the events of the week and how they affected his/her life.

WEEKLY REACTION SHEET

Name ______________________________ Date ______________________________

1. What was the most exciting point of your week?

2. Were you in strong disagreement with anyone this week? Who?

3. Did you bring about any changes in your life this week? Specify.

4. How could the week have been better?

5. What did you put off this week until the last minute, or maybe even longer? (When you do this, we call it procrastination.)

6. Name three choices you made this week . . . identify them clearly.

   a.

   b.

   c.

7. Did you make any plans this week for some future event? What?

8. What has been on your mind this week?

AREA. Self-Concept
LEVEL: JS
SOURCE. Stephen M. Corey, Childhood Education XX, Jan. 1944.
PROCEDURE. This is very effective if simply read without a following discussion, but with time allotted for the student to think about the implications in his/her life.

POOR SCHOLAR'S SOLILOQUY - By Stephen M. Corey
(Childhood Education XX Jan., 1944, -- 219-220)

No, I'm not very good in school. This is my second year in the seventh grade and I'm bigger and taller than the other kids. They like me all right, though, even if I don't say much in the schoolroom, because outside I can tell them how to do lots of things. They tag around and that sort of makes up for what goes on in school.

I don't know why the teachers don't like me. They never have very much. Seems like they don't think you know anything unless you can name the book it comes out of. I've got alot of books in my own room at home - books like Popular Science, Mechanical Encyclopedia and the Sears' and Ward's catalogues, but I don't very often just sit down and read them through like they make us do in school. I use my books when I want to find something out, like whenever Mom buys anything secondhand, I look it up in Sears' or Ward's first and tell her if she's getting stung or not. I can use the index in a hurry to find the things I want.

In school, though, we've got to learn whatever is in the book and I just can't memorize stuff. Last year I stayed after school every night for two weeks trying to learn the names of the Presidents. Of course, I knew some of them like Washington, and Jefferson and Lincoln, but there must have been thirty altogether and I never did get them straight.

I'm not too sorry though because the kids who learned the Presidents had to turn right around and learn all the Vice Presidents. I am taking the seventh grade over but our teacher this year isn't so interested in the names of Presidents. She has us trying to learn the names of all the great American inventors.

I guess I just can't remember names in hsitory. Anyway, this year I've been trying to learn about trucks because my uncle owns three and he says I can drive one when I'm sixteen. I already know the horsepower and number of forward and backward speeds of twenty-six American trucks, some of them Diesel works. I started to tell my teacher about it last Wednesday in science class when the pump we were using to make a vacuum in a bell jar got hot, but she said she didn't see what a Diesel engine had to do with our experiment on air pressure so I just kept still. The kids seemed interested though. I took four of them around to my uncle's garage after school and we saw the mechanic, Gus, tearing a big Diesel truck down. Boy, does he know his stuff!

I'm not very good in geography either. They call it economic geography this year. We've been studying the imports and exports of Chile all week, but I couldn't tell you what they are. Maybe the reason is I had to miss school yesterday because my uncle took me in his big trailer truck down state about 200 miles and we brought almost ten tons of stock to the Chicago market.

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He had told me where we were going and I had to figure out the highways to take and also the mileage. He didn't do anything but drive and turn where I told him to. Was that fun! I sat with a map in my lap and told him to turn south and southeast or some other direction. We made seven stops and over 500 miles round trip. I'm figuring now what his oil cost and also the wear on the truck - he calls it depreciation - so we'll know how much we made.

I even write out all the bills and send letters to the farmers about what their pigs and beef cattle brought at the stockyards. I only made three mistakes in 17 letters last time, my aunt said - all commas. She's been through high school and reads them over. I wish I could write school themes that way. The last one I had to write was on "What a Daffodil Thinks of Spring", and I just couldn't get going.

I don't do very well in school in arithmetic either. Seems I just can't keep my mind on the problems. We had one the other day like this:

> If a 57 foot telephone pole falls across a cement highway so that 17 3/6 feet extend from one side and 14 9/17 feet extend from the other, how wide is the highway?

That seemed to me like an awfully silly way to get the width of a highway. I didn't even try to answer it because it didn't say whether the pole had fallen straight across or not.

I don't get very good grades in shop either. All of us kids made a broom holder and bookend this term and mine was sloppy. I just couldn't get interested. Mom doesn't use a broom anymore with her new vacuum cleaner and all our books are in a bookcase with glass doors in the parlor. Anyway, I wanted to make an end gate for my uncle's trailer but the shop teacher said that meant using metal and wood both and I've have to learn how to work with wood first. I didn't see why but I kept still and made a tie rack at school and the tail gate after school at my uncle's garage. He said I saved him $10.00.

Civics is hard for me, too, I've been staying after school trying to learn the "Articles of Confederation" for almost a week because the teacher said we couldn't be good citizens unless we did. I really tried, because I want to be a good citizen. I did hate to stay after school, though, because a bunch of us boys from the south end of town have been clearing up the old lot across from Taylor's Machine Shop to make a playground out of it for the little kids from the Methodist Home. I made a jungle gym from old pipe and the guys made me Grand Mogul to keep the playground going. We raised enough money collecting scrap this month to build a wire fence clear around the lot.

Dad says I can quit school when I'm fifteen and I'm sort of anxious to because there are alot of things I want to learn how to do and as my uncle says, "I'm not getting any younger."

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AREA: Self-Concept
LEVEL: JS
PROCEDURE: Read to the class: Possibly follow activity with masks to show various emotions.

PLEASE HEAR WHAT I'M NOT SAYING

Don't be fooled by me.
Don't be fooled by the mask I wear.
For I wear a mask; I wear a thousand masks; masks that I'm afraid to take off, and none of them are me.
Pretending is an art that is second nature with me, but don't be fooled, for God's sake don't be fooled.

I give the impression that I'm secure, that all is sunny, unruffled, with me, within as well as without; that confidence is my name and coolness is my game; that the waters are calm and that I'm in command, and I need no one.
But don't believe, please don't.
My surface may seem smooth; but my surface is my mask, my ever-varying and ever-concealing mask.
Beneath lies no smugness, no complacency.
Beneath dwells the real me, in confusion, in fear, in loneliness.
But I hide this, I don't want anybody to know it.

I panic at the thought of my weakness and of being exposed.
That's why I frantically create a mask to hide behind, a non-chalant sophisticated facade to help me pretend, to shield from the glance that knows.

But such a glance is precisely my salvation, my only salvation, and I know it. That is, if that glance is followed by acceptance, if it's followed by love.
It's the only thing that will assure me of what I can assure myself, that I'm really worth something.
But I don't tell you this, I don't dare, I'm afraid to.

I'm afraid your glance will not be followed by love and acceptance.
It's the only thing that can liberate me.
I'm afraid that you will think less of me, that you'll laugh, and your laugh will kill me.
I'm afraid that deep down inside I'm nothing, that I'm just no good, and that you see and reject me.
So I play games, my desperate, pretending games, with a facade of assurance on the outside, and a trembling child within.
And so begins the parade of masks, the glittering but empty parade of masks.
And my life becomes a front.
I idly chatter with you in the suave tones of surface talk.
I tell you everything that's really nothing, nothing of which is everything, of what's crying within me.
So when I'm going through my routine, do not be fooled by what I'm saying.
Please listen carefully and try to hear what I'm not saying; what I'd like to be able to say, what, for survival, I need to say, but I can't say.

I dislike the hiding; honestly I do.
I dislike the superficial, phony games I'm playing.
I'd really like to be genuine, spontaneous, and me, but you have to help me.
You have to help me by holding out your hand, even when that's the last thing I seem to want or need.
Only you can call me into aliveness.
Each time you are kind and gentle and encouraging, each time you try to understand because you really care, my heart begins to grow wings.
Very small wings.
Very feeble wings, but wings. With your sensitivity and sympathy and your power of understanding, I can make it.
You can breathe life into me. I want you to know that.
I want you to know how important you are to me, how you can be a creator of the person that is me if you choose to.

Only you can wipe away from my eyes the blank stares of the breathing dead.
Please choose to. You alone can break down the wall behind which I tremble; you alone can remove the mask, you alone can release me from my shadow world of panic and uncertainty, from my lonely prison.
So do not pass me by. Please do not pass by. It will be easy for you.
A long conviction of worthlessness builds strong walls.
The nearer you approach me, the blinder I may strike back.
It's irrational, but despite what the books say about man, I'm irrational.
But I'M told that love is stronger than the strongest walls, and there lies my only hope.
Please try to beat down those walls with firm hands, but with gentle hands for a child is very sensitive; and I AM a child.
Who am I, you may wonder? I am someone you know very well.
For I am every man, every woman, every child . . . . every human you meet.

AREA: Group Decision Making Skills
LEVEL: JS
PROCEDURE. Students are divided into small groups and follow directions to come at a group decision as to items they would want to have with them if stranded in the northern Wisconsin woods. The emphasis should be placed on cooperation and compromise, as well as the distinction.

WINTER SURVIVAL EXERCISE

The situation:

You have just crash-landed in the woods of Northern Wisconsin. It is 11:32 a.m. in mid-January. The small plane in which you were traveling was completely destroyed except for the frame. The pilot and copilot have been killed, but no one else is seriously injured.

The crash came suddenly before the pilot had time to radio for help or inform anyone of your position. Your plane was in a storm and you know it was off course. The pilot announced shortly before the crash that you were eighty miles northwest of a small town that is the nearest known town.

You are in a wilderness area made up of thick woods broken by many lakes and rivers. The last weather report indicated that the temperature would reach minus 25 degrees in the day and minus 40 at night. You are dressed in winter clothing appropriate for city wear -- blue jeans, shoes without boots, coats, no stocking cap but gloves.

While escaping from the plane your group saved the fifteen items listed at the bottom of the page. Your task is to rank these items according to their importance to your survival.

______ First aid kit

______ Ball of steel wool

______ Cigarette lighter (without fluid)

______ Loaded .45 pistol

______ Newspaper (one per person)

______ Two ski poles

______ Knife

______ Air map made of plastic

______ 30 feet of rope

______ Large chocolate bar (one per person)

______ Flashlight with batteries

______ Quart of 85-proof whiskey

______ Extra shirt and pants for each person

______ Can of shortening

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______ Extra shirt and pants for each person

______ Can of shortening

AREA: Decision Making
LEVEL: JS
SOURCE: Submitted by Ellen McGinnis, ED Consultant, AEA 10

DECISION-MAKING FORMAT

Think of a problem you must solve or a decision you must make in the near future. The following are steps to help you become more aware of the decision-making process. Follow these steps in solving your problem.

1. Name the problem to which you need to find a solution.

2. List as many alternatives as you can think of to solve the problem.

3. State your decision by selecting from the alternatives listed above.

4. Give the reason for your choice.

5. State all the consequences (both positive and negative) that you can think of for your decision choice.

6. Evaluate your decision choice.

7. If you could change your decision choice what would it be? Why?

DECISION-MAKING

1. What do you think is the most important decision you have made in your life? Why do you think that it was the most important decision?

2. Were you happy with your decision? Why?

3. What are the three (3) most important decisions you think you will make in your lifetime? Why?

4. Do you think that it is important to think about your future decisions now? Why?

AREA: Decision Making/Conflict Resolution
LEVEL: S
SOURCE: Submitted by Ellen McGinnis, ED Consultant, AEA 10

CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Conflict occurs when we have to make a choice between two or more different things. The difficulty of the choice affects how easy it is to resolve the conflict. Examples of conflict:

1. Do I want ice cream or pie for dessert?
2. Do I want to go out with my friends or with my family?
3. Do I want to accept a late date or study for a test?

We all encounter conflicts in our lives but many of us are not aware of what is causing the problem. Let's analyze some of the conflicts that we face from day to day. Conflict is always easier to resolve when we identify the problem and the alternatives available.

Student Activity

Place a check to identify problems you often encounter:

1. What kinds of conflicts do you have:

   ______ school

   ______ family

   ______ friends

   ______ religion

   ______ boyfriend, girlfriend

   ______ social activities

   ______ work

   ______ money

2. Do you feel that you are resolving these conflicts in ways that make you feel good? Yes ______ No ______ If not, why not?

3. Have you identified the real problem? What seems to be causing the majority of your conflicts?

Therapeutic Approaches

Therapeutic interventions with troubled children have developed with a great deal of flexibility and variety. This flexibility was borne out of the challenging task of meeting the needs of children, in general and, more specifically, by the wide range of problem behaviors we call disordered.

It is the purpose of this section to familiarize you with various therapeutic approaches and techniques applicable to the public school setting. The four area divisions of this section are:

- Programmatic Approaches
- Interactive Techniques
- Adjunctive Therapies
- Self-Change Techniques

This section begins by briefly looking at the major therapeutic approaches and some programs based upon their theoretical frameworks.

In the area of "Interactive Techniques," you are presented with miscellaneous communication and problem-solving methodologies such as group meetings, Reality Therapy, and Life-Space Interviewing.

With the growth of adjunctive therapies in educational programs, therapy through art, music, movement, recreation and reading are considered. A treatment program for childhood encopresis is also presented.

Behavior change can often be accelerated with active participation by the student in the change process. In the area of "Self-Change Techniques" you are introduced to self-control, self-instruction, and self-monitoring as useful therapeutic interventions.

Related materials may also be found in the Alternative Curriculum section.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. PROGRAMMATIC APPROACHES

- Major Approaches Used in Working With Troubled Students
- Article: "These School Programs Are Helping Children"

II. INTERACTIVE TECHNIQUES

- Group Meetings
- Ways to Talk to Children
- Non-Therapeutic Approaches to Children
- Reality Therapy*
- Life-Space Interviewing*
- Management of Surface Behavior*

III. ADJUNCTIVE THERAPIES

- Treatment of Childhood Encopresis*
- Bibliotherapy*
- Recreational Therapy: Jogging
- Article: "Art Therapy"
- Article: "Music Therapy"
- Article: "Dance in Growth or Treatment Settings"

IV. SELF-CHANGE TECHNIQUES

- Article: "Self-Control Strategies for Emotionally Disabled Students"
- Teaching Self-Control
- Performance Objectives for Self-Control
- Sample Self-Control Checklists*
- Self-Instruction Training*
- Self-Monitoring Activities*
- Self-Monitoring Readings List

* Indicates more than one entry on the same topic.

RESOURCES (Therapeutic Approaches)

A Peaceable Classroom: Activities to Calm and Free Students.

I Can: Primary Skills Program and Sport, Leisure and Recreation Skills Program, Edmark Associates.

It's Me! Building Self-Concepts Through Arts, Teaching Resources Corporation.

Learning Through Art, Teaching Resources Corporation.

Magic Circle Resource Set, Human Development Training Institute.

Peace, Harmony, Awareness: A Program of Relaxation for Children, Teaching Resources Corporation.

Relaxation: A Comprehensive Manual for Adults, Children, and Children With Special Needs by Cautela and Groden, Edmark Associates.

AREA: Programmatic Approaches
LEVEL: PIJS
SOURCE: "Working With Troubled Students" by Barbara Coloroso.

MAJOR APPROACHES USED IN WORKING WITH TROUBLED STUDENTS

There is no one "correct" way of working with troubled students. A teacher must be aware of various approaches that may be used realistically and effectively in the classroom. The following reference to authorities and contributors in this field is for the purpose of acquainting the reader with various approaches that may be investigated further.

Psychoanalytic approach

Bruno Bettelheim (1949), who was among the first to develop a specific school program for troubled students, used an orthodox psychoanalytic approach. The role of the teacher using this approach is to provide ways in which students can bring into consciousness their unconscious repressions.

The program is extremely permissive, with all program cueing coming from the child. The program developed by Bettelheim is carried out in a residential school, the Sonia Shankman Orthogenic School, and is not adaptable to a public school setting.

Fritz Redl (1959) and Ruth Newman (1967) have also taken a psychoanalytic approach in dealing with troubled youth. They stress the importance of bringing unconscious repressions into consciousness and developing the ego. They differ philosophically from Bettelheim in that their approaches involve much more external structure.

Fritz Redl is known for his work with delinquent boys in residential treatment programs. He believes in a structure that allows for a wide range of choice in behavioral responses. Life space interviewing, a technique developed by Redl, exploits a life event at the time of the event or soon after. It is a way of offering "ego support on the spot" to achieve a develolopmental gain. This technique has been used successfully by classroom teachers and is suited to a teacher's responsibility in group management, social learning, and social adjustment.

Ruth Newman suggests that an essential part of the educational programming for the troubled child is allowing the child to act out. Her techniques initially involve the acceptance of unacceptable symptoms, followed by tolerance but no acceptance, and finally setting a limit to the behavior.

Other psychoanalytically inclined authors include Pearson (1954), Slavson (1954), and Hirshberg (1953).

Humanistic approach

The humanistic approach in working with troubled children involves the acceptance of a child's behavior and the reflection of the behavior back to the child. It is through this reflection process that the child grows in his capacity to develop insight and modify his own behavior. This approach, with its direct and uncomplicated framework, encourages the child to learn, to express, and to better understand his feelings in a caring, reflective environment.

Clark Moustakas (1953) considers the regular classroom teacher as having the potential to be a genuinely effective therapist by establishing an atmosphere of acceptance and warmth in the classroom.

Another humanistic psychologist, Carl Rogers (1951), advocates a permissive relationship, within defined limits, for a child's self-expression. Rogers feels that schools are too punitive for nondirective therapy and has made suggestions for adjusting teaching techniques to work in conjunction with treatment agencies.

Thomas Gordon (1974), utilizing Rogers' philosophy and basic attitudes about persons, elaborates on active listening, an integral part of the humanistic approach, in his book, T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training. Also part of Gordon's approach to helping troubled children is group-centered problem solving, in which the students and teacher work cooperatively to make the educational experience a responsible and profitable one.

Virginia Axline (1947) is known for her work in play therapy. She feels that by providing understanding, acceptance, and recognition and clarification of feelings, a teacher can help a child grow in his understanding and acceptance of himself.

The humanistic system is a viable approach in dealing with troubled students in the public school setting if the attitudes of acceptance, trust, and empathic understanding are present.

Behavior modification

Behavior modification techniques offer the tools and systematic procedures that teachers may implement to change or modify behavior that is unacceptable or deviant and to encourage more acceptable and appropriate behaviors. The fundamental concept of behavior modification is that behavior, abnormal as well as normal, is learned. Environmental consequences may accelerate-increase the behavioral response or decelerate-decrease the frequency or rate of behavior.

The application of behavior modification principles with children in the regular classroom is a systematic and complex process. The dispensing of M & M's or gold stars cannot be properly called behavior modification. Behavior modification requires systematic and planned effort to be used effectively.

Behavior modification theorists are not primarily concerned with the causes of deviant behavior. Rather, they are concerned with exhibited, overt behavior. The behavior is observed, measured, and analyzed quantitatively. Appropriate behavior modification techniques are applied in relation to the observable measurements.

Some of the individuals who have systematically applied behavior modification techniques in the classroom or have developed behavior modification techniques that can be used in the classroom include Homme (1970), Hewett (1968), Walker (1970), Lindsley (1971), Haring and Phillips (1962), and Patterson and Gullion (1968).

Other conceptual frameworks

Two other persons who have developed specific techniques for use in the regular classroom are Rudolph Dreikurs and William Glasser.

Rudolph Dreikurs, his philosophy rooted in Adlerian theory, suggests that schools must become truly democratic, with students playing an active role in the process of their education. Advocating the "art of encouragement" as a crucial tool in improving the adjustment a troubled child must make, he recommends that teachers give up punitive retaliation and begin sharing responsibility with the students, encouraging them to participate in decision making. Dreikurs believes that a teacher must understand the roles and the importance of the peer group as it relates to classroom conduct (Dreikurs, Grunwald, and Pepper, 1971).

William Glasser (1969) suggests that teachers, grading, and imposed curricula contribute to students' failure. According to Glasser (1969):

> The schools assume built-in motivation, but when it does not occur, they attempt to motivate children with methods analogous to using a gun. Although guns have never worked, the schools, struggling to solve their problems, resort to using bigger and bigger guns -- more restrictions and rules, more threats and punishments.

He has developed techniques for classroom meetings that give students more freedom to talk and think, to be responsible for their own behavior and academic success.

AREA: Programmatic Approaches SOURCE: Closer Look, Washington, D.C., Fall 1979.
LEVEL: PIJS

These School Programs are Helping Children

They Can Exist in Your School System!

Good programs point the way for us, show us what can be done by a high level of competence and caring. The thread that runs through all of these programs is genuine acceptance of kids with severe emotional problems as people to value. Reeducation of faulty behavior, which takes place in these classrooms, is based on a firm belief in each child's importance, however difficult or inappropriate or frustrating his actions may be.

We have not done a survey of programs throughout the country. But in the course of our work, we have learned about these examples of special education for children with serious emotional handicaps — from early childhood through high school years. We share them as just that: examples . . . with the hope that through the push and persistence of caring advocates, the number of high quality programs will increase.

The Georgia Psychoeducational Network includes 24 centers throughout the state, serving over 6,000 severely emotionally disturbed children from 2 - 14. The program has been developed through interagency cooperation, combining education and mental health agency services; it also coordinates other agency services needed by the children. Children spend half-time in the centers, half-time in regular classes - with a sizeable amount of teacher time devoted to easing the transition by working with regular classroom teachers and providing follow up support. Consequently, the record of successful return to regular classes is extremely high. The curriculum concentrates on goals for behavior, communication, socialization and academics, developing individualized programs based on developmental stages and mapping strategies to help each child reach new levels of growth. Families are involved in a variety of ways. There are different opportunities to explore problems and possible solutions through group meetings, conferences or counseling; the staff helps families to locate needed resources in the community; parents are trained through participation in classrooms. Home programs are also available, and the center staff also works with infants from three months to three years in well baby clinics and community service centers. For more information, write to: Rutland Center, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia 30601.

The Rose School in Washington, DC is a demonstration school for children from 6 to 13 with severe problems in learning, self-concept and ability to relate to adults and peers. It combines the resources of a community health center (operated by the Department of Human Resources), the city's school system, and American University. In addition, the program benefits from services to the children provided by graduate students in special education and interns in child psychiatry at Georgetown University.

The school's basic philosophy is that the total environment — every experience within the school day — can contribute to strengthening the child's emotional and social development. All teaching (the academic subjects are the same as in any elementary school) is closely interwoven with understanding of each child's feelings and emotional needs. Crises are used as times to help children learn how to cope more effectively with problems that repeatedly disturb them. When a child's behavior has become too uncontrollable for the classroom, a crisis teacher works with him — helping him gain understanding and control.

The program includes individual tutoring, specially designed art, physical education, regular opportunities to discuss important issues in group meetings, psychotherapy. Children spend four days each week at the special school, one day in their regular neighborhood school until they are ready to rejoin their regular school full time.

The professional team that works to articulate each child's needs and looks constantly at progress and changes consists of the classroom teacher, a psychiatric social worker, a psychotherapist, a remedial reading teacher and other staff members. Parents are involved in meetings and in planning a strong and vibrant program that is committed to discovering strengths and fostering self-esteem in an atmosphere of joy, adventure and regard for human values. For more information, write to Anthony R. Werner, Educational Director, the Rose School, 1690 36th St., Washington, D.C. 20007.

Project Re-Ed in Louisville, Kentucky offers both a residential program and satellite school-based programs in a successful ten-year-old project for meeting needs of emotionally disturbed children ages 6 through 12. The project grew out of recognition of the gross inadequacies of residential facilities for these children and includes as its primary goals: Helping the child to unlearn habits that cause rejection and acquire those that make him more acceptable; helping the child achieve a sense of who he is and belonging and responding to his environment; providing remedial work to arrest the downward trend in achievement; restoring some trust, competence and joy. The residential program consists of an intensive 14-month period of behavior modification during which children are helped to change old, self-defeating attitudes and behaviors, followed by two years of supportive family counseling or crisis intervention. An essential component is extensive involvement with parents in learning new approaches to child

(continued on next page)

management. This includes ongoing teamwork between parents and teachers and help in mobilizing a network of support — through churches, social groups and other organizations. For more information write to Re-Ed Center, 1804 Bluegrass Avenue, Louisville, Kentucky, 40215.

Mark Twain School in Montgomery County, Maryland is an unusual public school program which has been in existence since 1971 for adolescents who are unable to succeed in a regular school program because of complex emotional and behavioral problems. The school provides an intense individualized program; students may stay for a maximum of 2 years. The goal is to enable students to return to regular classes with the academic and interpersonal strengths they need to make it with less ongoing support. In an article in *Behavioral Disorders* (May, 1979) the school's principal, Ronald S. Laneve, states: "The heart of the Mark Twain School is the teacher advisor . . . (who) . . . could be called a case manager, teacher, friend, confidant and comforter." The teacher advisors meet with students each day to discuss problems at home or at school and provide help through counseling and group interaction. Individualized education programs for each child carefully describe priority goals and methods to bring about desired changes — drawing on a wide variety of techniques for controlling inappropriate behavior and building coping skills. Supportive activities involve parents as collaborators in helping to redirect students toward success. The school is also very much involved in teacher training programs in the school system, and provides opportunities for internships for classroom teachers learning new techniques for working with emotionally disturbed youngsters. For more information write to: Mark Twain School, 14501 Avery Road, Rockville, Maryland 20853.

Mainstreaming Program for Secondary Students with Learning and Behavior Problems. This program, in Media, Pennsylvania, helps teenaged students whose emotional problems are not so severe that they need an intensive specialized program away from the regular classroom. Without the support and understanding provided by the teachers in the program, however, most would be headed for continued school failure and rejection. The crux of the program is a resource room in which six students at a time spend no more than 2 periods each day. Resource teachers give basic academic instruction; liaison teachers work with classroom teachers in the mainstream, providing help with problems that arise, giving support and intervention in crises, holding group workshops to create greater understanding of students' needs, advising teachers on adaptations of tests and other curriculum changes — so that students with learning and behavior problems can use their individual strengths. For more information, write to: Ms. Meg Adelman, Delaware County Intermediate Unit, State Building, Media, Pennsylvania 19063.

Hawthorn Center, in Wayne County, Michigan. This comprehensive treatment center, under the direction of Dr. Harold Wright, is set up to give psychotherapeutic treatment and appropriate education to severely disturbed children and adolescents. Widely considered a model for programs of its kind, the center combines education and me tal health services in a total therapeutic program. Abo 150 children from ages 4 to 17 who cannot live at home are accepted for residential treatment, usually staying for approximately six or seven months before returning to their homes. Treatment is then continued in a less restrictive setting.

In addition to the residential program, Hawthorn provides a day school and treatment program for 90 children and extends its resources to 900 children for diagnosis and evaluation. The center sponsors an exciting and much needed early intervention program for preschool children; parents bring their youngsters 2 or 3 times a week and learn new skills through observation and participation. For those children who are ready to leave residential placement but cannot return to their homes, the center has developed interim group homes where ongoing treatment is provided, and children go to neighborhood schools or special education programs on the group home grounds. One of the essential features of the Hawthorn program is the staff of specially trained child care workers who have a high degree of commitment and maintain a close relationship with each child throughout the day. Treatment plans are drawn up and constantly re-evaluated by teams of specialists including teachers, child psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, nurses, child care workers. In ad

The center is in the vanguard of the effort to provide meaningful services to those people whose emotional disorders are so severe that they must have ongoing care and support. Some of its group home facilities make it possible for adolescents and young adults, who might otherwise be institutionalized, to live and work in the community. If crises occur and the need for hospitalization arises, the center is able to provide the necessary help. This kind of forward-looking program has been developed by bringing together mental health, vocational rehabilitation and social services. For additional information, write to: Hawthorn Center, 18471 Haggerty Road, Northville, Michigan 48167.

A remarkable and extremely effective statewide parent group was born at Hawthorn in 1957, providing an outstanding model of what a well-organized citizens' organization can do. The *Michigan Association for Emotionally Disturbed Children,* which has 12 local chapters and over 2,000 members, has successfully fought for progress in education and treatment of children in need of special care. The group has helped to bring about a great increase in appropriate public school programs for emotionally impaired and learning disabled students; separate facilities for children who were previously hospitalized on adu wards; establishment of post-hospital residential programs; new recreation programs for disturbed children. For more information about their successful advocacy, write to: MAEDC, 23555 North Western Highway, Southfield, Michigan 48075.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

AREA: Interactive Techniques
LEVELS: PIJS
SOURCE: "Strategies for Working With Troubled Students" by Barbara Coloroso

GROUP MEETINGS

Group meetings foster student involvement and initiative in learning. Teachers are teaching students to teach themselves.

Formats for these meetings have been described in detail by Glasser (1969); Dreikurs, Grunwald, and Pepper (1971); and others in the field of education. Group meetings are like kids -- they come in all shapes and sizes. They can be five minutes or fifty minutes long and can involve two or thirty people.

There are three types of meetings, with many different labels, that seem to fit most of the situations arising in most classes. These are:

1. Academic planning meetings
2. Problem-solving meetings
3. Crisis meetings

Academic planning meetings. In this type of meeting, the teacher and the students plan the academic program. This includes a discussion of the students' present academic status, where they are going, and the steps they will need to accomplish to reach their goal. Students, then, assume a responsible role in their own educational planning.

Students usually have a good idea of their level of progress in reading -- especially if they are behind their classmates. Try as we might to disguise levels of reading groups, the "Buzzards" know that they are the bottom level if they are the poorest readers. Being straight with a student helps him to accept his level. What you are saying is that you know he is behind, he is okay, his present level is okay for now, you know he can learn more, and you have a plan to help him get ahead. The slow or underachieving student will then no longer feel hopelessly behind. He now has a goal and a realistic means to achieve that goal. You and the student become coplanners in the learning experience.

Openly discussing different levels of achievement takes the bite out of classmates' malicious or hurtful talk that can destroy a child's self-esteem, "John's so dumb, he can't even read yet" or "Ha Ha, look at all the math problems Jill missed." Because you accept each one of them, you can help students accept themselves and one another for what they are, where they are, and where they are going.

At the beginning of each quarter you should discuss the learning objectives so the students can get an idea of the total learning picture for the next nine weeks. Each week you should present the objectives for the individual week in relation to the whole term. At this time, students can discuss what they have already mastered and how they are going to accomplish their goals for the week. Keeping the learning experience on a positive note and in perspective with larger goals will not only help students learn to organize their time, but will enable them to see themselves progress. You will find that your teaching is more organized and realistic.

The time spent in this type of meeting does take away from the reading or math periods, but you will find the time well worth while as students go about the business of learning with a feeling that they are in control.

Problem-solving meetings. The problem-solving meeting is perhaps the most fun and challenging of the three. Students learn to examine situations, propose solutions, and evaluate the results. The problem is stated simply and clearly; then the problem is clarified. The students select options and discuss the feasibility of their choices. Solutions are proposed and a plan of action is agreed on and carried out if possible. Students present their own ideas, listen to one another's reasoning, and work cooperatively to arrive at a solution.

The students begin to see, through these interactions, that there is not always a definite right and a definite wrong. Group choices involve give and take and much cooperation on the part of all concerned.

From this exercise, you and the students can move on to problem situations in the classroom, for example, where to go on a field trip when there is a gas shortage and a fifty-mile radius limit, how to get more equipment for the playground, or how to rearrange schedules.

Crisis meeting. This meeting differs from the other two in that it is rarely planned; it is conducted whenever necessary. It can be held by two individuals, three individuals, or a group on the playground, in the classroom, or in the lunchroom. The rules for this meeting include the following:

1. All parties concerned must speak in soft tones -- no shouting is permitted. A cooling-off time may be necessary before the parties can begin discussing the situation. Lowering your voice helps to quiet the students.

2. The first child expresses his feelings and states the problem situation as he sees it.

3. The other child (or children) is asked to repeat what he heard the first child say. This is an important step. Repeating what the other child said helps to take the edge off of any remaining anger.

4. Child number two then gives his side of the story and the first child repeats what he heard.

5. Now the situation is discussed at length. Could this situation have been avoided? How? What alternative behaviors might the students use in the future to avoid a similar situation? What should the consequences be for the students' irresponsible behavior? It is often quite effective to have the students determine the consequences. They are most fair (and sometimes very hard on themselves).

These instant meetings can help a child come to grips with his emotions and help him see alternatives to the irresponsible ways in which he may have expressed his anger or hurt.

Magic Circle. Complete systems have been devised to help students develop self-esteem and the skills necessary for living a creative, responsible life.

One such system is the Magic Circle, developed by the Human Development Training Institute in La Mesa, California. It is a preventative program that can be used to help troubled students dispel the delusion of uniqueness -- the delusion that they are so different from those around them. By talking and listening, children learn from one another that they have much in common. The program consists of specifically and developmentally programmed topics introduced by the teacher in daily twenty-minute sessions. During these sessions, students deal with negative and positive feelings and practice resolutions of conflict in an atmosphere of trust and acceptance. In planned stages, children learn how to express themselves meaningfully, to become confident in their abilities and to interact creatively and constructively with one another.

Through the Magic Circle you can foster an atmosphere of warmth and honesty in which each child contributes a part of himself, and listens respectfully to his peers.

The program is based on the following three areas of human experience:

> awareness: knowing who he is, his own thoughts, feelings and actions. To own his own behavior, and his hurt and happy feelings.
>
> mastery: knowing his abilities and liabilities and how to utilize his abilities constructively and creatively.
>
> social interaction: knowing other people, how to be a friend, how to care for others.

The three work together to decrease a child's fear of facing everyday frustrations and give him confidence in dealing creatively with everyday situations. The program is developed through the ninth grade, complete with manuals and suggested supplementary activities that relate to the affective domain.

One note of caution with group meetings that deal with feelings and self-expression: keep the discussion from becoming a "show and tell all about family secrets" meeting.

If a student blurts out in the group that his parents had a big fight last night or his dad came home drunk and beat up his mom, quietly express your concern and let him know you will talk about it with him at break or free time, as soon as possible. Care about the hurt the child is feeling and be supportive, not probing. Be certain to provide time that day for the child to talk with you alone.

AREA: Interactive Techniques
LEVEL: PIJS
SOURCE: Unknown

WAYS TO TALK TO CHILDREN

TRY THIS:	INSTEAD OF THIS:
1. Make "I" statements about your own feelings. a) "I feel really angry when I can't teach for all the noise. b) "I wish we could do that, too."	1. Making "You" statements about others. a) "You are always a disturbing influence on the class." b) "You are hopelessly stubborn."
2. Describe the present situation. a) "You forgot your book." b) "You're looking out the window."	2. Encouraging guilt for the past and making predictions for the future. a) "No matter how nicely I ask you, you always forget your book." b) "You're never going to pass if you don't watch the board."
3. Mirror the child's feelings. a) "It sounds like you really hate fractions." b) "You really would love to quit school."	3. Arguing logically, denying his accusations, explaining his errors. a) "Fractions will help you later in life." b) "If you quit school, you'll never get a decent job."
4. Determine goals of misbehavior. a) "I get the feeling you want to show me I can't force you into anything." b) "I wonder if you do that so that the class will notice you."	4. Demanding explanations for misbehavior. a) "Why can't you ever just do what I tell you?" b) "Why on earth can't you keep your pencil on your desk?"
5. Be oriented toward a solution -- lose an occasional battle to win a war. a) "Would it help if I only called on you at the beginning of the period?" b) "I'll try not to embarrass you again by having you read aloud."	5. Always being firm -- always sticking to your guns. a) "You should be ready to be called on anytime." b) "Everyone has to take turns reading out loud."

AREA: Interactive Techniques
LEVEL: PIJS
SOURCE: "Strategies for Working With Troubled Students" by Barbara Coloroso.

NON-THERAPEUTIC APPROACHES TO CHILDREN

Steps that are inappropriate for helping a troubled student include the following:

1. Using brute force: "You hit me, I'll hit you back!"
2. Accusing the student of misbehaving. You are, in a sense, forcing the child to lie to save face.
3. Comparing the student's behavior with that of his peers.
4. Arguing -- you cannot win an argument with a student. Usually, you both lose.
5. Embarrassing the student in front of his peers.
6. Removing the student from success experiences -- activities he does well and enjoys doing.
7. Rediculing the student for his mistakes or misbehavior.

AREA: Interactive Techniques
LEVEL: PIJS
SOURCE: Dr. William Glasser, submitted by Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone Area Education Agency

REALITY THERAPY

In reality therapy, the emotionally disabled person is the person who behaves irresponsibly. It is logical for a person who painfully sees himself as a failure to deny his responsibility for his siutation. A reality therapist believes a student should be accountable for his own behavior and therefore excuses fall of deaf ears. He is happy or unhappy much more because of his own decisions than because of the conditions in which he finds himself. Responsible behavior is the root of happiness and the primary goal of reality therapy. We assume our students can be responsible, rather than focus on analyzing or asking why they are irresponsible.

Reality therapy is not a lecturing situation but a direct questioning approach based on five principles: (1) encouraging the student to make a value judgment about his/her own behavior, (2) encouraging the student to make a plan aimed at some desired goal, (3) asking the student to commit himself to that plan, (4) asking him to make no excuses if he/she fails to keep the commitment, and (5) for his part, the therapist makes it clear he will inflict no punishment on the student.

When employing reality therapy as a crisis intervention, remember:

* Don't lecture - guide and question

* Don't talk of the past - focus only on the present

* Never ask "why?"

AREA: Interactive Techniques
LEVELS: PIJS
SOURCE: Submitted by Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone Area Education Agency.

USING REALITY THERAPY FOR PROBLEM SOLVING IN THE SCHOOLS

* 1. "What happened?" Get the student to reconstruct the facts and define the problem. Focus on the present. Never ask "why?". Zero in on "what did you do?" so as to eliminate tattling.

* 2. "Did that behavior help you in any way?" or "How did that help you?" Encourage the child to make a value judgment about his behavior and realize the unproductive element to his behavior.

* 3. "What could you have done that would have helped?" Get the student to consider alternative behaviors.

* 4. "What can you do next time this occurs?" Encourage the child to select an appropriate option.

* 5. "Will you make a plan?" Ask the student to make a verbal commitment to try the new behavior. Where appropriate, solidify the plan by putting it in the form of a written contract.

It is essential to help the student make plans that will succeed. A plan that does not have the student's firm commitment is likely to fail and thereby create a self-defeating identity or negative self-concept.

When a plan works, the result is a change in behavior, which is apparent to the student. When a plan fails, the student should draw up a new one as quickly as possible. In this setting the student should not be punished. Punishment encourages a failure identity or negative self-concept. The adult should be firm but understanding, warm, human and concerned.

Striving for responsible behavior while developing a success identity is the goal of reality therapy.

AREA: Interactive Techniques
LEVEL: PIJS
SOURCE: Ed Redalen - AEA #7

SUCCESS DISCIPLINE PLAN
(Based on Glasser's Reality Therapy)

Steps to the Success Discipline Plan:

1. Make Friends
   Get involved, create an atmosphere of sociability. The important thing is that this child knows you care about him.

   Combine an atmosphere of discipline and friendliness. "This teacher cares about me and has something for me to learn."

2. The basis for getting the student to change is for him/her to know what he/she is doing.

   Emphasize present behavior: What are you doing?

   Deemphasize the past feelings. Feelings alone are irrelevant as no one can correct how you feel. Accept the fact that feelings exist and deal with the present behavior in a non-threatening, non-punitive way.

3. Get a value judgment. The student must make this--don't preach.

   Is what you're doing helping you?
   Is what you're doing hurting you?
   Is it helping others? Me? The class?
   Is everyone else more productive? Pleased?

   (If students insist on saying that it is helping--have them: Help me understand how it's helping.)

4. Plan a better way - make a feasible plan.

   If it's an on the spot situation -- you may have to make a plan later. Or, perhaps a small plan now, with a bigger plan later.

   This is the students' plan for better behavior. If he/she has made a judgment that his/her behavior isn't helping, it's time to figure something else out. For some the duration is only an hour or less -- others a half-day, others more.

5. Get a commitment to the plan.
   Handshake.
   Sign a contract.
   This commitment and plan should require you to follow up. Don't break your commitment as the adult in the plan.

6. Accept no excuses. Excuses are the bane of discipline. "Look it's your plan." So go back to another value judgment (step 3) and precede again.

7. No punishment. Punishment *excuses* behavior. You want to *change* behavior.

8. Don't give up. A student who has difficulty expects you to give up. You show you care by not giving up.

Humans have the capacity to change. Helping a person see his/her behavior realistically helps him/her to change it.

AREA: Interactive Techniques
LEVEL: IJS
SOURCE: V.F. Jones, Adolescents with Behavior Problems: Strategies for Teaching, Counseling, and Parent Involvement

STEPS TO BEHAVIOR CHANGE
JONES' MODEL
(BASED ON GLASSER'S REALITY THERAPY)

COSTS/PAYOFFS

1) Define and describe the unproductive's behaviors.

2) List the possible causes of these behaviors -- allow student expression of feelings gives counselor idea of environmental cues and reinforcers.

3) List the payoffs associated with the behaviors.

4) List the costs associated with the behaviors.

5) Find alternative behaviors that will meet needs at lower cost.

6) Develop methods for accomplishing those behaviors.

AREA: Reality Therapy
LEVELS: IJS
SOURCE: V.F. Jones
PROCEDURE: Tool to pictorially outline problem solving procedure. Useful for group and individual counseling sessions.

COSTS/PAYOFFS MODEL FOR DEALING WITH PROBLEM BEHAVIORS

Unproductive Behavior	Cause (What makes me do it?)	Cost (What I lose because of my behavior) Payoff (What do I get from it?)
Appropriate behavior to replace above	Method of accomplishment	

COSTS/PAYOFFS MODEL FOR DECISION MAKING

Alternative #1		Short Term	Long Term
	Payoffs		
	Costs		
Alternative #2			
	Payoffs		
	Costs		

REALITY THERAPY

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AREA: Interactive Techniques
LEVELS: PIJS
SOURCE: Submitted by Mark Cannon, ED Consultant, Keystone Area Education Agency

LIFE-SPACE INTERVIEWING

I. INTRODUCTION

In order to give some perspective to life-space interviewing, it may be helpful to first take a look at the concept of crisis intervention.

II. CRISIS INTERVENTION

A. Crisis Defined

Morse states " . . . a crisis occurs when the child's coping capacity is overloaded." (p. 295).

Rapoport defines a crisis as "an upset in a steady state." This definition is based on the assumption that an individual strives to maintain a state of equilibrium through adaptive maneuvers and problem-solving activities. Throughout life, situations occur in which the homeostatic state is disturbed and a state of disequilibrium results. In most of these situations the individual possesses adequate adaptive mechanisms; however, in a state of crisis it is assummed that the habitual problem-solving activities are not adequate (Rapoport, p. 24).

"Caplan states that a crisis is a relatively sudden onset of disequilibrium in a child." (Morse, p. 295.)

B. Rationale for Intervention

Caplans point of view stresses that a small force acting for a short time during the period of acute crisis can produce more pronounced impact for change than would otherwise be possible (Morse, p. 463.)

The immediacy of dealing with a crisis is the antithesis of the traditional theories which advocate a "cooling down" period. The theory of crisis intervention suggests that there is a great deal of growth-promoting potential during a state of crisis. The emotional potency of the contemporary charge situation can be used to help the child understand his feelings and what can be done. "When you let a child "cool down," he has lost the impetus for charge." (Morse, p. 463.) Proper intervention at the time of crisis enables us to teach a child how to cope, while the child is in the process of learning how to cope.

C. Intervention

Intervention varies from child to child, and from one situation to another. Whatever is done should be prescribed to fit the nature of the child's problem, and may run the gamut from operant to classical therapy. (Mores, p. 298.)

One approach used during crises, that would fall on the continuum somewhere between the above mentioned therapies, is Life-Space Interviewing. "This presumes that working with a child through interviews around the particular difficulty he faces in the contemporary life scene is an effective way to help him learn long-term coping." (Morse, p. 464.)

III. LIFE-SPACING INTERVIEWING

A. Introduction

The relationship between life-space interviewing, child analysis and milieu therapy, will be discussed. After the conceptual framework for life-space interviewing has been delineated, the goals, tasks, strategy, and techniques will be outlined.

B. Relationship to Child Analysis and Milieu Therapy

Redl refers to the classical style of long-range psychoanalytically oriented therapy as therapy in the pressurized cabin. On the other end of the continuum is the concept of milieu therapy. Different though they may be, a commonality exists - the need for taking care of a "missing link." In child analysis, many experiences and issues outside of the pressurized cabin need to be handled by people other than the child's analyst. Even in total milieu therapy, we cannot rely on the "environments" always doing the job itself. Although some milieu impacts do their job without medication, in most instances an adult has to become a mediator between environment and child.

Ordinary environmental influences, in order to have the intended effects, require interpretation. This, then, is the "missing link."

"In all those cases in which adults find it necessary to surround a youngsters experience at a given time with some form of verbal communication that has the purpose of regulating the impact of this experience on the child we have before what we have begun to call the "life-space interview." (Redl, p. 39.)

C. The Concept of the Life-Space Interview

1. " . . . life-space interviewing plays an important part in the lives of all children."

2. "The life-space interview assumes a mediating role between the child and what life holds for him . . . "

3. " . . . in work with seriously disturbed children . . . the strategically wise use and the technically correct handling of the life-space interviews held with the children are of foremost clinical importance."

4. " . . . even when children are exposed to clear-out pressurized cabin therapy, . . . the wisdom of strategy and technique used by their natural home or school life personnel in mediating life experiences for them is of major strategic relevance . . ."

5. " . . . what goes on in a life-space interview . . . involves as subtle and important issues of strategy and technique as the decisions the psychoanalyst has to make during the course of a therapeutic hour."

6. " . . . any application of total life milieu therapy as supportive to individual therapy, or undertaken in its own right, will stand or fall with the wisdom and skill with which the prolectors, teachers, and interpreters in the children's lives carry out their life-space interview tasks." (Redl, p. 39-40.)

D. Goals and Tasks

Two major categories are (1) clinical exploitation of life events and, (2) emotional first-aid on the spot. The issue, or nature of events around which the need for the life-space interview arises may be the same; however, the difference lies in our decision about what we want to do with the interview.

1. Clinical exploitation of life events

" . . . making use of momentary life experiences in order to draw out of them something that might be of use for long-range therapeutic goals."

a. Reality rub-in. Many youngsters are socially near-sighted; that is, they cannot read the meanings of events in which they get involved. Others suffer from near-to-delusional misinterpretations of life, and many are skillful in alibiing to their own consciences and rationalizing. It is extremely important that such children have some "reality rub in" interviewing done then and there.

b. Sympton estrangement. The children's symptoms have taken on secondary gain values, so they are not inclined to accept the idea that there is something wrong with them. The tasks consists of alienating the children's egos from their symptoms, by using "many of their life situations to try to pile up evidence that their pathologies really do not pay or that the children pay too heavily for what meager secondary gains they draw from the pathologies, or that the glee they are after can be much more regularly and reliably drawn from other forms of problem-solving . . ." (Redl, p. 45.)

c. Massaging numb value areas. Children have lots of potential areas of value lying in them. Value sensitivity needs to be used, but admitting value sensitivity is face-losing to youngsters. Some value areas are more exempt from peer-group shame then others, and these should be appealed to.

d. New tool salesmanship. In an effort to widen a child's adaptational skills, it is often beneficial to demonstrate to youngsters that there are other defenses besides the ones they are using. "The life-space interview offers a chance to leave the more general level of propaganda for better adjustment tools and to become quite specific in the demonstration of the all-too-obvious inadequacy of the special tool previously chosen by the child." (Redl, p. 46.)

e. Manipulation of the boundaries of self. Some children that are easily explosive drift into a "sucker" role by an exploitation-happy subclique. Life-space interviewing may enable the child "to expand their concepts of the wider boundaries of their selves to include other people, benign adults, their groups, the whole institution to which they feel a sense of belonging . . " We may also be concerned with helping children learn to accept themselves. (Redl, p. 47.)

2. Emotional first-aid on the spot

Adults should aid children with adjustment demands of daily life, if they are not capable of managing on their own. Emotional first-aid is a valid reason for a life-space interview, even when the issue promises no long-range gain.

a. Drain-off of frustration acidity. A child who is over-aggressive and has a low frustration tolerance will become quite infuriated at the interruption of pleasurable exploits. "In symapthetic communication with the child about his anger or justified disgust at the discomfort of having been interrupted, we can drain off the surplus of intervention-produced hositility and thus avoid its being added to the original reservoir of hate." (p. 48.)

b. Support for the management of panic, fury, and guilt. Many children have more feelings of anxiety, panic, shame, guilt, and fury then they should experience. "By being with the child after the excitement of a blowup abates, the adult can often help the child "put" things back into focus and proportion again." (p. 49.)

c. Communication maintenance in moments of relationship decay. Children at the borderline of psychotic withdrawal may react to experiences of emotional turmoil by breaking off all communication and recreating into an autistic world of fantasy. If a breakdown of a previously established relationship seems imminent, any planned strategy must be abandoned. At this point communication must be kept flowing no matter how trivial or far removed it may be from the issue at hand.

d. Regulation of behavioral and social traffic. Even though children are aware what policies and rules are vogue, they do not always muster enough ego force at the moment to subject impulsitivity to the dictates of an internalized concept of rules. We must remind them of the rules, and where they deviate dangerously. Because children are allergic to moralizing, avoid offering them a condensed handbook of behavioral guidelines. "It is important to subdivide that phase of their social learning into a number of aids given on the spot when needed most." (p. 50.)

e. Umpire services - in decision crises as well as in loaded transactions. Helping children decide between the dictates of their "worse or better selves." For these instances, our role is that of a good friend helping with internal and external disputes.

E. Strategy and Technique

This concerns indications and counterindications for holding life-space interviews to begin with, as well as, indications and counterindications for specific techniques or specific strategic moves.

1. Central theme relevance

" . . . the impact of over-all strategy in a given therapeutic phase on the question of just what situations we should move in on and what issues we should select for life-space interview pickup." (Redl, p. 52.) Expoliting life experiences too often for clinical gains would disturb the natural flavor of the child's life. Too much first-aid contains the dangers of overdependency or adult-intervention oppression.

2. Ego proximity and issue clarity

One does not attempt to interpret material that is deeply repressed because it may result in increased resistance. "On the other hand material of high ego proximity had better be handled directly, or else the child might think we are too dumb or too disinterested to notice what he himself has figured out long since on his own." (p. 53.) Issue clarity is complex because of the many factors involved in a behavioral scene.

3. Role compatibility

"The compatibility of major role of a given adult with the role he is forced into by the life-space interview is an important strategic consideration." (p. 54.) In Redl's program the counselor's role was sharply distinguished from the other adults in order to reduce excessive aggression manipulation toward the counselor.

4. Mood manageability

Staff members should be recognizant of the limits at which he can no longer manage his mood. Also, recognize the child's moods. An issue clairifed and well designed to draw learning out of it will be lost if the child gets overexcited, bored, tired or grouchy.

5. Issues of timing

One of the advantages of life-space interview in the flexibility in timing. We may work with the child immediately or decide how much cooling off time should be allowed before the child will be accessible to communication.

6. The impacts of terrain and props

"Although the most favorable terrain is always the one in which both partners feel most comfortable, in life-space interviewing the terrain may be terrifically varied, and neither it nor the selection of props is often within our power. In fact more often than not, terrain and props are on the side of the child's resistance, rather than on our side." (p. 56.)

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SOURCE: American Journal of Orthopsychology, 29, Jan., 1959, 1-18.

THE CONCEPT OF THE LIFE SPACE INTERVIEW

Abridged from Fritz Redl, "The Concept of the Life Space Interview," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, XXIX (January 1959), 1-18.

It is our contention that life space interviewing plays an important part in the lives of all children. All adults in an educational role in children's lives find themselves in many situations which could correctly be thus labeled.

It is our contention that the life space interview assumes a mediating role between the child and what life holds for him, which becomes just as important as the interviewing that goes on within the pressurized cabin.

It is our contention that in work with seriously disturbed children, even if they are not exposed to the special type of pressurized cabin therapy over and beyond their exposure to milieu therapy, the strategically wise use and the technically correct handling of the life space interviews held with the children are of foremost clinical importance.

It is our contention that even where children are exposed to clear-cut pressurized cabin therapy, for special therapy of one phase of their problem, the wisdom of strategy and technique used by their natural home or school life personnel in mediating life experiences for them is of major strategic relevance in its own right.

It is, before all, our contention that what goes on in a life space interview, even though held with the child by somebody not his therapist, in the stricter interpretation of the term, involves as subtle and important issues of strategy and technique as the decisions the psychoanalyst has to make during the course of a therapeutic hour.

It is our contention, last and not least, that any application of total life milieu therapy as supportive to individual therapy, or undertaken in its own right, will stand or fall with the wisdom and skill with which the protectors, teachers, and interpreters in the children's lives carry out their life space interview tasks.

It is for this reason that we shall try to subject some of the occurrences during the process of a life space interview to the same type of scrutiny that psychiatric therapy techniques have for a long time been exposed to in our technical seminars. By the way, one more word about the term:

What we have in mind when we say "life space interview" is the same thing as what my staff, my friends, and my coworkers, while I still lived in Detroit, referred to under the name of marginal interview. The reasons for the change in terms are many, and seem to me so strong that they outweigh the equally obvious disadvantages of the switch in name. When I, and many of us

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in the same type of work, started talking about the marginal interview, it was pretty clear, out of our own context of operation and to us personally, what we felt it was "marginal" to. We meant, at first, the type of therapylike interview that a child may need around an incident of stealing from the "kitty" in his club group, but which would be held right around the event itself by the group worker in charge of that club, rather than be the child's therapist--even though the material around the incident would probably later be getting to therapy, too.

So--it was "marginal" in two ways: marginal in terms of the rest of the life events around which it was arranged; and marginal in terms of the overall job expectation of a group leader, who uses casework or therapy technique even while functioning in his group leader role.

Since I moved into the operation of our residential treatment design[1] within a huge hospital setting, the term "marginal" has lost the clarity of its meaning entirely, besides other disadvantages which the low-status sound of the word "marginal" seems to assume for many people.

In changing to the term "life space interview," we apologize for the possible confusion that might be created because we are using the term here with an entirely different meaning from the one Kurt Lewin had in mind. In spite of this disadvantage, we feel that the term is at least frank in its emphasis on the major characteristics of this type of interview we have in mind: In contrast to the interviewing done in considerable detachment from direct involvement in the here and now of Johnny's life, such as the psychoanalytic play therapy interview, the life space interview is closely built around the child's direct life experience in connection with the issues which become the interview focus. Most of the time, it is held by a person who is perceived by the child to be part of his "natural habitat or life space," with some pretty clear role and power-influence in his daily living, as contrasted to the therapist to whom one is sent for "long-range treatment." We are fully aware that none of the similarities or differences implied here

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[1] Whenever in illustrations the "children on our ward" are mentioned, this refers to the following setting: Closed Ward within the premises of the National Institutes of Health, a large research hospital. The children referred to here: a carefully selected group of six boys ranging in age from eight to ten years at the time of intake, chosen as representative of "borderline" disturbances commonly referred to as "explosive acting-out type of child." They are children of normal IQ, however, and are expected to be free from traceable physical pathology, characterized in their behavior by a rather extreme volume of aggression, extreme forms of reckless destruction, and loaded with an amazing array of learning disturbances and character disorders to boot. The ward on which the children lived was staffed and operated more along the lines of a camping program, with the hospital as a base, but not ultimate limit for the activities. At the time of the presentation of this material, the movement of the children into a newly constructed open residence was imminent. The treatment and research goals of the operation included the study of the impact of intensive individual psychotherapy (four hours per child per week), of observations in our own school setting (individual tutoring as well as group school), and exposure to "milieu therapy" in their life on the ward.

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are truly characteristic for the two operations; in fact, to find similarities and differences is the goal, not the starting point for our research. For the time being, and until someone with more imagination and linguistic know-how gives us a better clue, we think the term is as good, or bad, as any we could think of to connote what we have in mind. Frankly, we aren't quite used to it ourselves, and you may find us slipping back into calling the whole thing by its old Midwest-flavored name of the "marginal" more often than we may be willing to admit.

GOALS AND TASKS OF THE LIFE SPACE INTERVIEW

First, I want to select for discussion two major categories of goals and tasks for life space interviewing: (a) Clinical Exploitation of Life Events; and (b) Emotional First Aid on the Spot. The difference between these two categories does not lie in the nature of the event around which the need for the life space interview arose -- we shall in the future refer to this event as the "issue" -- but in our decision as to what we want to do with it; it is also defined, of course, by the question as to just what the situation itself allows.

Let's assume that a group of children are just about ready to go out on the excursion they have anticipated with eagerness for quite a while. Let's assume there is, due to our fault, somewhat more delay at the door because of a last-minute search for lost shoes, footballs, etc., so that irritability mounts in the gang that is already assembled and raring to go. Let's further assume that in the ensuing melee of irritated bickering two of our youngsters get into a flare-up, which ends up with Johnny's getting socked more vehemently than he can take, furiously running back to his room, cursing his tormentor and the world at large, all educators in particular, swearing that he will "never go on no trip no more in his whole life." We find him just about to soak himself in a pleasurable bath of self-pity, nursing his grudge against people in general and adding up new evidence for his theory that life is no good, people are mean "so-and-so's" anyway, and that autistic daydreaming is the only safe way out.

Well, most of us would feel that somebody ought to move into this situation. The staff member who tries to involve the sulking child in a marginal interview at this time has a choice of doing either of two things:

He may want to be with John in his misery, and to assist the child in disentangling the complicated web of emotions in which he is so hopelessly caught, simply in order to "get him over it" right now and here, to get him back into his previous enjoyment-anticipating mood. This situation seems to be quite comparable to the concept of "first aid"; the organism is capable of taking care of a wound produced by a minor cut, but it might be wise to help it.

On the other hand, depending on how much time there is and how Johnny reacts to the adult's interview strategy, the adult may suddenly find that this opportunity gives him a long hoped-for chance to help John to come to grips with an issue in his life which we so far have had little possibility to bring to his awareness thus, he may forget about his intention of getting John back to his orginal cheerful excursion-anticipating mood; he may even give in

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to his sulky insistence that he "wasn't going to go nohow," but he may decide to use this special opportunity to start on an interpretational job. He may begin to tie this event up for John with many similar previous ones, and thus hope to help him see how John really "asks for it" many times, even though he has no idea that he does so, and how his irritably rude provocation or lashing out at other children often gets people infuriated, or whatever the special version of this perennial theme may be. In short, half an hour later our interviewer may be driving after the rest of the group with a somewhat sadder but wiser companion at his side, or he may at least have laid the groundwork for some such insight to sink in at a future opportunity, or to be picked up by his "therapist" at a later opportunity in case John happens also to be "in individual therapy" of the more classical style.

By the way, most of the time we can't be sure before an interview under which of the two goal categories it will eventually have to be listed, for we may in the middle of an interview find good enough reason for a switch from the original intent with which we entered the scene.

This differentiation between "Emotional First Aid on the Spot" on the one hand, and "Clinical Exploitation of Life Events" on the other, however, still leaves us with two rather comprehensive categories before us. I feel that the practitioners among you would like it better if we broke those wider concepts down into smaller units and thus brought them closer to the observational scene.

THE CLINICAL EXPLOITATION OF LIFE EVENTS

Our attempts at pulling out of a life experience, in which a given child is involved, whatever clinical gain might be drawn from it for our long-range treatment goal, may assume some of the following special forms:

Reality rub-in. The trouble with some of our youngsters, among other things, is that they are socially nearsighted. They can't read the meaning of an event in which they get involved, unless we use huge script for them and underline it all in glaring colors besides. Others are caught in such a well-woven system of near to delusional misinterpretation of life that even glaring contradictions in actual fact are glided over by their eyes unless their view is arrested and focused on them from time to time. More fascinating even, are the youngsters whose preconscious perception of the full reality is all right, but who have such well-oiled ego skills in alibiing to their own conscience, and rationalizing to any outside monitor's arguments, that the picture of a situation that can be discussed with them is already hopelessly repainted by the time we get there. It is perhaps not necessary to add how important it is, strategically speaking, that such children have some of this "reality rub-in" interviewing done right then and there, and preferably by persons who themselves were on the scene or are at least known to be thoroughly familiar with it.

Symptom estrangement. In contrast to their more clearly neurotic contemporaries, our children's egos have, in part at least, become subservient to the pathological mechanisms they have developed. They have learned well how to benefit from their symptoms through secondary gain, and are therefore in no way included to accept the idea that something is wrong with them or

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that they need help. A large part of the "preparatory" task at least, without successful completion of which the magics of the more classical forms of individual therapy are rather lost on these children, consists in alienating their ego from their symptoms. Hopeful that there must be somewhere a nonpathology-swallowed part of their ego functions waiting for a chance to speak up, we use many of their life situations to try to pile up evidence that their pathology really doesn't pay, or that they pay too heavily for what meager secondary gain they draw from it, or that the glee they are after can be much more regularly and reliably drawn from other forms of problem-solving or pursuit of life and happiness. By the way, the assumption in all this is not that one can simply argue such children through well-placed life space strategy into letting go of their symptoms; part of the job needs to be tackled, in addition, by many other means. However, we can enlist part of their insight into helping their ego want to liberate itself from the load of their pathology. To make it possible for them, even after they want to, to shuffle off the unconscious coils of their neuroses, is an issue in its own right. We also ought to remember at this point how important it is that symptom estrangement be pursued consistently by all the staff all the way down the line. It would do little good to talk in interviews about the inappropriateness of their symptomatic actions, if the social reality in which they live made it too hard for them to let go of those very symptoms. Our action definitely has to be well attuned to our words in this task more than in any other.

Massaging numb value-areas. No matter how close to psychopathic our children may sometimes look, we haven't found one of them yet who didn't have lots of potential areas of value appeal lying within him. But while the arm is still there, circulation has stopped. Value sensitivity in a child for which his inner self has been liberated still needs to be used, and something has to be done to get circulation going again. Admitting value sensitivity, just like admitting hunger for love, is quite face-losing for our youngsters. There are, however, in most youngsters some value areas which are more tax-exempt from peer group shame than others. For instance, even at a time when our youngsters would rather be seen dead than overconforming and sweet, the appeal to certain codes of "fairness" within their fight-provocation ritual is quite acceptable to them. Thus, in order to ready the ground for "value arguments" altogether, the pulling out of issues of fairness or similar values from the debris of their daily life events may pay off handsomely in the end.

New-tool salesmanship. Even the most classicism-conscious therapists confess from time to time that they spend quite some effort helping a youngster see that there are other defenses than the ones he is using, and that doing this may at least partially widen the youngster's adaptational skills. The therapist, however, who oprates in the "pressurized cabin" of a long-range classical style individual therapy design cannot afford to waste too much of his effort in this direction, or he would puncture the pressure-safe walls he has spent so much time building up to begin with. So, as soon as the potential to use such mechanisms has been liberated in individual therapy, the adults who "live" with those children can begin to use many of the life experiences to help them draw from them the vision of a much wider range of potential reaction to the same mess. Even the seemingly simple recognition that seeking out an adult to talk it over with is so much more reasonable than to lash out at nothing in wild fury many need to be worked at hard for a long stretch of time with some of the children I have in mind.

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The life space interview offers a chance to leave the more general level of propaganda for better adjustment tools, and to become quite specific in the demonstration of the all too obvious inadequacy of the special tool previously chosen by the child. In this respect we feel the same advantage that the salesman may feel who, besides having leaflets to distribute, is given the opportunity to demonstrate.

Manipulation of the boundaries of the self. From time to time one invariably runs into a child who combines with the rest of his explosive acting-out type of borderline aggressive pathology, a peculiar helplessness toward a process we like to refer to as group psychological suction. quite vulnerable to even mild contagion sparks, he is often discovered by an exceptionally brilliant manipulator of group psychological currents, and then easily drifts into the pathetic role of the perennial "sucker" of an exploitation-happy subclique.

The life space interview, of course, offers a strategic opportunity to begin to move in on this. To illustrate what we mean by this concept of "manipulation of the boundaries of the self" -- and leaving out all the details as to life space strategy employed in the case -- the following example may serve:

Several months ago, we felt that the time was ripe to "move in" on the problems of one of our youngsters around "group psychological suction" described above, so we decided to exploit incidents of this sort, wherever they might happen, through an increased use of "life space interviews." We felt good when eventually the following incident occurred one day in school: Two boys of the subclique that enjoyed exploiting this youngster were hard at work to get him to "act up" for them. This time their wiles didn't seem to get them anywhere; in fact, in the process of accomplishing their job they got out of hand themselves and got themselves "bounced." They were hardly out of the room when the youngster in question turned to the teacher, with a relieved look on his face, and declared, "Gee am I glad I didn't get sucked into this one."

Many of our children are more ready than one would assume at first sight to expand their concept of the wider boundaries of their self into including other people, benign adults, their group, or the whole institution to which they feel a sense of belonging, and so on. In an entirely different direction, again, we may want to use life incidents to help youngsters with the problem of acceptance of their self, or of hitherto split-off parts of it. Anything that educators describe under terms such as "encouragement," "inculcating a feeling of worthfulness and pride," and anything that betrays confused attitudes of the children toward their "self" in the form of despondency coupled with megalomanic illusions, etc., might well be grouped under this heading.

In summary, we should underline the implication that these five goals for the use of the life space interview were meant to be illustrative rather than system binding. In all the instances we have raised so far, the real goal of what the life space interviewer did was the clinical exploitation of a given life event. It meant making use of a momentary life experience in order to draw out of it something that might be of use for our long-range therapeutic goals.

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EMOTIONAL FIRST AID ON THE SPOT

While children are exposed to therapeutic long-range work on their basic pathology, it is important to remember that they are still forced to live with their symptoms until they finally can shed them, and that child development is also still going on. For, while it is true that our children are sick enough to deserve the term "patients," we must never forget the child patients are still growing youngsters. This means that the adult, who accompanies them during the various phases of their growth, is also needed as an aid on the spot in those adjustment demands of daily life that they cannot well manage on their own. It is our contention that this in itself is an important enough task to deserve special technical attention, and that the opportunity for such "aid in conflict" includes the situations which we term "life space interview." The emphasis here lies in the fact that emotional first aid in itself is perfectly valid reason for a carefully planned life space interview, even if this special issue around which the interview is built promises no long-range gain in the same way in which we described it in the previous section. As illustration of the goal which a given life space interview may set itself, we should like to enumerate again five randomly assembled subcategories:

Drain-off of frustration acidity. Even normal children experience easily as something quite infuriating the interruption of the pleasurable exploit in which they happen to be engaged. This is especially unfortunate with our type of child who has such low frustration tolerance, for he is over aggressive and hostility-projective to begin with. It is here that the life space interview has an opportunity to serve as an over-all hygienic device. In sympathetic communication with the child about his anger of justified disgust at the discomfort of having been interrupted, we can drain off the surplus of intervention-produced hostility, and thus avoid its being added to the original reservoir of hate. Such situations offer themselves especially when something has gone wrong with a planned enterprise, or if the mere need to maintain a schedule may force interruption.

Support for the management of panic, fury, and guilt. The trouble with many children is not only that they have more feelings of anxiety, panic, shame, guilt, fury than they should or than the normal child would experience, but also that they don't know what to do with such states of mind when they get into them. We have already complained, in Children Who Hate, about how difficult it is to help such children to react correctly even if they do feel guilty when they should. It is important, then, that the adult intervene and give first aid as well as therapeutic support whenever heavier quantitites of such emotions hit the child or the group. In our own over-all strategy plan, for instance, we consider it important that an adult always stay with the child, no matter how severe his tantrum attack may become. The knowledge that we are just as interested in protecting him from his own exaggerated wishes, as from the bad intent of other people, has been found quite ego supportive in the long run. By being with the child right after the excitement of a blowup abates, the adult can often help the child "put things back into focus and proportion" again. He can also aid him in the return to the common course of activities or social life of the day without the sour after-taste of unresolved hurt.

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Communication maintenance in moments of relationship decay. There is one reaction of our children to experiences of emotional turmoil which we fear more than any other they may happen to produce -- and that is, the total breakoff of all communication with us and full-fledged retreat into an autistic world of fantasy into which we are not allowed to penetrate. We get scared, because with children at the borderline of psychotic withdrawal from any and all reality this weapon of defense against help from us is the most efficient one.

It is used especially frequently when events force us to a clear-cut form of intervention in a youngster's behavior, the nature of which seems, at first sight, to offer an especially "clear-cut" point of argument or interpretation to the child. Yet, at this very moment he is liable to drop all relationships with us, and there by makes us quite helpless in our attempt to offer sympathy, explanation or support. Often, for instance, after a particularly vicious attack upon another child, a youngster will misperceive the motives for the intervention of a protective and battle-interrupting adult to such a degree that he interprets even the most well handled interruption of the fight as rude and hostile "betrayal." To this he reacts with such resentment that the breakdown of all previously established relationships with that adult seems imminent. It is important that this process be stopped right then and there and that we prevent the next step in the youngster's defensive maneuver, namely, the withdrawal of all communication and the total flight into autistic daydreams. Often, in such a moment, it is obvious that nothing we could do would make any impact on the hopelessly misconceived image in the youngster's mind. However, our attempt to involve the youngster in some form of communication may prevent the next level of retreat from us right then and there. So we surrender any plan to "talk to the point," but simply try to keep communication flowing between child and adult, no matter on what theme and no matter how trivial or far removed it may be from the issue at hand.

Regulation of behavioral and social traffic. This specific task of the life space interview doesn't look like much, and we have become painfully aware that people have a tendency to consider it too "superficial" and undignified to be included in items as status-high as the discussion of "interview techniques." Yet, our respect for the clinical importance of our service as social and behavioral traffic cops has gone up, if anything, over the last ten years. The issue itself is simple enough and doesn't need much explaining. The performance of the task, however, may get so difficult that it is easily comparable to the most delicate problems that might emerge in individual therapy of either children or adults.

The facts of the situation are these: The children know, of course, what over-all policies, routines, rules of the game of social interaction are in vogue in a given place. Only, no matter how well they "know," to remember the relevance of a given issue for a given life situation is a separate task, and to muster enough ego force at the moment to subject impulsivity to the dictates of an iternalized concept of rules is still another. Thus, the service they need becomes very similar to the job the traffic cop, when functioning at his best, would perform for adults, and even the most law-abiding ones amongst us may need such help from time to time. He reminds us of the basic rules again or warns us of the special vicissitudes of the next stretch. He may point out to us where we deviate dangerously even though we happen to be lucky this time. Since people do not necessarily learn even

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from dramatic experience, unless they are aided by a benign and accepted guide, it may be important to go, in a subsequent session, through a stretch of behavioral confusion and to use it for reinforcement of our overall awareness of the implications of life. Since our children are especially allergic to moralizing or preaching or lecturing of any kind, it would not do to offer them a condensed handbook of behavioral guidelines. It is important to subdivide that phase of their social learning into a number of aids given on the spot when needed most.

For example: we have a clear-cut policy on our ward about the child's going to our school sessions, and about the reasons for this, as well as the course of events which will take place if a child gets himself "bounced" for the time being. We have spent great effort to have everybody live this policy consistently so that the unanimous attitude of all adults involved could serve as an additional nonverbal reinforcer of the basic design. Yet, in order for all this to become meaningful and finally incorporated and perceived as part of the overall structure of "life in this place" for our children, it took hundreds of situations of life space interviews surrounding school events.

Umpire services--in decision crises as well as in cases of loaded transactions. The children often need us for another function, which may sound simple though the need for it may be emphatic and desperate: to umpire. This umpiring role in which we see ourselves put may be a strictly internal one. It sort of assumes the flavor of our helping them decide between the dictates of their "worser or their better selves." For those instances, our role resembles that of a good friend whom we took along shopping--hoping he would help us maintain more vision and balance in the weighing of passionate desire versus economic reason that we ourselves might be capable of in the moment of decision-making. However, we wouldn't want to restrict this term to its more subtle, internal use. We envision it to go all the way from the actual umpiring of a fight or dispute, of a quarrel about the game rules in case of conflict or confusion, to the management of "loaded transactions" in their social life. Into the last category fall many complicated arrangements about swapping, borrowing, trading, etc., the secondary backwash from which may be too clinically serious to be left to chance at a particular phase. Many such situations, by the way, offer wonderful opportunities to do some "clinical exploitation of life events." But, even if nothing else is obtained in a given incident of this kind, the hygienic regulation and the emotionally clean umpiring of internal or external dispute is a perfectly legitimate and a most delicate clinical job in its own right.

Summarizing all this, we should like to emphasize what we tried to imply all along: All these "goals" -- the strategic exploitation type, as well as the moment-geared emotional first-aid ones-may be combined sometimes in one and the same interview, and we shall often see ourselves switch goals in midstream. We probably need not even add that the type of goal we set ourselves at a given time in our project would also be strongly influenced by the phase the children find themselves in their individual therapy, and of course, just where they are in their movement from sickness to mental health. In fact, the "stepping up" as well as the "laying off" in respect to selecting special issues for life space interview or for purposely leaving such materials untouched is in itself an important part of the over-all coordination of individual therapy and the other aspects of our therapeutic attack on the pathology of a given child.

SPECULATIONS ABOUT STRATEGY AND TECHNIQUE

The importance of a clinically highly sophisticated concept of strategy and technique in regard to the life space interview is taken for granted in this discussion by now. That this short symposium cannot hope to do more than open up the issues and point at the need for more organized research seems equally obvious. In view of this, it may seem most advisable to concentrate on one of the core problems of all discussions on strategy and technique, namely, the question of indications and counterindications; and to draw attention to some of the most urgent aspects that need further elaboration soon. If we say "indications and counterindications," by the way, we mean to refer to both: indications and counterindications for the holding of a life space interview to begin with, as well as indications and counterindications for a specific technique or for the establishing or abandoning of a specific strategic move. The question "Should I keep my mouth shut or should I interpret this dream right now?" which is an issue so familiar to us from discussions of individual therapy, has its full analogy in the orbit of life space interview work.

The following criteria seem to turn up most often in our own discussions of technique:

Central theme relevance. By this we mean the impact of overall strategy in a given therapeutic phase on the question of just what situations I would move in on and what issues I would select for life space interview pick-up. It would not do to surround the children with such a barricade of attempts to exploit their life experiences for clinical gains that it would disturb the natural flavor of child life that needs to be maintained; and too much first aid would contain the danger of overdependency or adult intervention oppressedness that we certainly want to avoid. As an example for this: At certain stretches we would purposely keep away from "talking" too much about our previously quoted youngster's proneness to allow himself to be played for a sucker. It is only after certain overall therapeutic lines have emerged that we decide in unison that such incidents should from now on be exploited more fully. It was felt, at that particular time, that the child's individual therapist would welcome such supportive rub-in from without.

Ego proximity and issue clarity. The first of these two is an old standby, well known from clinical discussions in classical psychoanalytic work. One simply does not sail interpretatively into material that is at the time so "deeply repressed" that bothering it would only unnecessarily increase resistance or lead to marginal problems in other areas. On the other hand, material of high ego-proximity had better be handled directly, else the child might think we are too dumb or too disinterested to notice what he himself has figured out long since on his own. The same issue remains, of course, an important criterion in life space interview work.

The item of issue clarity is a more intricate one and becomes especially complex because of the rapidity with which things move on the behavioral scene of children's lives and because of the many factors that may crowd themselves into the picture. Just one brief illustration of what we are trying to point out:

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Johnny has just attacked another youngster viciously, really underservedly. The other child's surprise and the whole situation are so crystal clear that this time we are sure that even our insight-defensive Johnny will have to let us show him how he really asked for it all--So, here we stand, our clinical appetite whetted while we watch the fight. But--wham--a third child interferes. He happened to run by, couldn't resist the temptation of getting into the brawl, and he is a youngster Johnny has a lot of hostile feeling about anyway. Before anybody quite knows what has happened, Johnny receives from that interfering youngster a blow much too heavy and unfair for anybody's fight ritual, and so, of course, Johnny leaves the scene howling with fury, pain, and shame about losing face. Obviously, we had better assist Johnny in his predicament, but the idea of using this life space interview for a push in the direction of Johnny's self-insight into the provocativeness of his behavior seems downright ridiculous at this point.

Role compatibility. Children who live in an institutional setting do not react to individual people as "persons" only. There is also a direct impact brought to bear on them from the very "role" they perceive a particular adult to be in. This issue has long been obscured by the all too generalized assumption that the personal relationship between child and adults is the only thing that counts. To illustrate this point:

When a camp counselor finds her whole cabin up on the roof where they know they shouldn't be, she may have trouble getting them down no matter how much the children may all love her. I, as the camp director walking in on that scene, may find it much easier to get them off the roof; in fact they may climb down as soon as they see me coming along. This does not mean that they have a less good relationship to their counselor or a better one to me. It simply means a difference in their role expectation. The counselor for them is seen in the role of the group leader, which heavily contains the flavor of the one who plans happy experiences with them. It is true that on the margin of this role they do know that the adult counselor also has certain "overgroup-demanded" regulations to identify herself with and to enforce. However, that part of her role--and for the sake of a happy camp experience we hope so--is less sharply in focus than the program-identified one. In fact, if that counselor got too fussy or too indignant about the youngsters' not responding immediately, or used the argument of the over-all camp regulations against her gang too fast, this would create resentment and a loss of subsequent relationship for a while. The role of the camp director, no matter how cordial individual feelings toward him may be, is much more clearly loaded with the expectation that it is his job to secure overall coordination of many people's interests. The children would therefore expect the director to make a demand for them to get off that roof, and would not hold it as much against him that he does interfere with the pleasure of the moment or considers the whole camp more important than "Cabin 7" at this time.

The compatibility of the major role of a given adult with the role he is forced into by the life space interview is an important strategic consideration. In our present operation, for example, we felt, during the first year or so, that it was quite important that the role of the counselor be rather sharply set off from that of the ward boss, the teacher, the therapist . . . During that phase it also seemed important for us to protect the counselor from too many unnecessary displaced hositilities, since she has enough to do to handle those that would naturally come her way. In short:

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During that period of time we felt it important that all requests for going home or for special prolonged week-end visits, etc., were steered to the psychiatrist, who was seen as the ward boss by the children. The transference character of many of these requests and the terrific ambivalence of the children about them, thrown on top of all the aggression manipulation a counselor has to cope with anyway in her daily play life with the child, would have increased the ensuing confusion. The arrangement we created allowed the ward boss to absorb some of the extra frustration acidity unavoidably generated during such interviews, while the counselor was, so to say, "taken off that hook." At the same time, however, we did feel that the counselor is the most natural person to assist the child in first aid interviews around his concern about home, mother's not turning up for a visit, etc.

Mood manageability--the child's and our own. With due respect to all the clinical ambition any staff member can have about managing his own mood, there is a limit beyond which he cannot be forced any further. Such limits need to be recognized. Oversimplifying the issue for purposes of abbreviation:

If I work for an hour in order to get the children finally in shape to be quite reasonable and have a good stretch of quite happy and unusually well modulated play with me, I can't possibly act concerned enough if one of them does something that needs a more serious "reality rub-in" for good measure. This is especially the case where we allow a child to play his "cute antics" for the service of everybody's entertainment, and where he suddenly begins to go too far. Even a serious talk with someone who quite visibly found the same antics cute two minutes ago will not have the same strategic chance as a talk with one who was not involved in the original scene.

The time of mood manageability is, of course, an even more difficult one as far as the mood of the children is concerned. The issue may be clear enough, and the event beautifully designed to draw some learning out of it. If the youngster in the meantime gets overexcited, bored, tired, or grouchy, the best laid-out issue would be hopelessly lost and we had better look for another occasion for the same job.

Issues around timing. One of the great strategic advantages of the life space interview is the very flexibility in timing that it offers us. We don't have to hope that the child will remember from Friday noon until his therapy hour next Wednesday what was happening just now. We can talk with him right now. Or, having watched the event itself that led to a messy incident, we can quite carefully calculate how long it will take the youngster to cool off enough in order to be accessible to some reasonable communication with him, and move in on him at that very calculated time. Or we may even see to it that he gets enough emotional first-aid from us or from our colleagues so that he can be brought into a state where some insight-focused discussion with him is possible at last. One of the most frequent dilemmas that aggressive and explosive children force us into is the fear of waiting too long to talk about something, because we know how fast they forget, as opposed to the need to let some cooling off take place, lest the interview itself get shot through with the aggression debris left over from the original scene. Sometimes external things happen and the "time" aspect may often work against us. I shall never forget the painful experience several years ago in which I finally had succeeded in working a bunch of quite recalcitrant delinquents into a mood conducive to my talking with them about an issue they didn't want to face.

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Just then the swimming bell put a rude end to my efforts. To keep them one minute longer while they heard and saw everybody else running down to their beloved free swim would have made shambles out of my carefully built up role as interpreter of the rules of her life.

The impact of terrain and of props. Both the life space interview and the more classical styles of individual therapy believe in the importance of terrain and props. In the long-range therapy, after we have figured out the most goal-supportive arrangements, the problem of terrain and props loses its importance because it can easily be held constant or can at least be kept under predictable control. While the most favorable terrain is always the one in which both partners feel most comfortable, in life space interviewing the terrain may be terrifically varied, and neither it nor the selection fo props is often within our power.

In fact, more often than not, terrain as well as props are on the side of the child's resistance, rather than on our side. This is, of course, especially true when we move in on a situation involving extreme behavioral conflict.

For the child, the most comfortable place may be the one behind his most belligerently cathected defences. From bathtub to toy cabinet, from roof or treetop to "under the couch," his choice of terrain seems endless. In all cases the problem of what emotional charge the surrounding props may suddenly assume remains of high technical relevance. Besides what is going on between the two people, what is going on between them and space and props can become of great relevance.

In summary, the choice of a given technique must be (1) dependent on the specific goal we have in mind, (2) within a given setting, (3) with a specific type of child, and (4) in a given phase of his therapeutic movement.[2] There is no "odd" or "bad" technique in itself. The very procedure that "made" one situation all by itself may be the source of a mess-up in another, or may have remained irrelevant in a third. However, this reminder, while disappointing, would not be too hard to take, for we have learned that lesson from the development of concepts of strategy and techniques for the psychiatric interview long ago. Rather than relearn it, we simply need to remember the difference between a pseudoscientific technical trick-bag, and a more complex, but infinitely more realistic concept of multiple-item conditioned choice of critieria for the selection of strategy as well as of techniques.

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[2] Many of the illustrations used in this paper need to be understood as limited by the specific conditions under which the observations were made. For their full evaluation, a detailed description of the overall program and ward policies for the clinical management of the children and for the guidance of staff behavior would have to be added here. It is, therefore, expected that most of our illustrations will have to be read with this reservation in mind. While literal translation into practice with other children in different settings is not intended, we do imply emphatically that the basic principles we are trying to illustrate here should hold for a wide variety of designs.

AREA: Interactive Techniques
LEVELS: PIJS
SOURCE: Submitted by Mark Cannon

Techniques for Managing Surface Behavior

(Abstracted from the works of Fritz Redl, Ruth Newman, Nicholas Long.)

There are four major ways of managing behavior: 1) permitting, 2) tolerating, 3) interfering, and 4) preventive planning. No one of these is better than any other. The task is to find the right combination of techniques for each child.

Permitting Behavior

Many, if not most, rules in school are made to inhibit behavior. During the day children are often told to stop, slow down, and control their behavior. These are necessities and are important.

However, it is equally important for children to know what they can do. For instance, children should be told that they can run and shout on a playground. Children should be told that they can be messy with fingerpaint. Children are reassured when they can predict when they won't be chastised. The sanctioning of behavior by adults eliminates much unnecessary testing of limits. A teacher who permits children to leave their desks to get a book after completed work avoids having a child become sneaky about getting a book.

Tolerating Behavior

Much classroom behavior must be tolerated. However, children should have no reason to believe that teachers approve or sanction it. There are two basic reasons for tolerating behavior. They are:

1. Learner's Leeway. When a child is learning a new concept, experimenting with ideas, or trying to win status in a group, the teacher should expect mistakes. The teacher should not initially expect perfect behavior. In many instances, the more mistakes a child makes in learning a new task, the easier it is for the teacher to clarify the misunderstanding.

2. Behavior that Reflects a Developmental Stage. Some behavior is age typical and will change as the child becomes more mature. Any attempt to change it brings negligible results. It's not worth the fight. Some examples: 1) kindergarten children tend to be impulse and motor oriented, 2) tattling in third and fourth graders, 3) sex language of adolescent and pre-adolescent boys. Very little can be done about it except to tolerate it. This is not sanctioning it or permitting it.

Interfering with Behavior

Some behavior has to be stopped if classroom learning is to take place. The task is to find ways of interfering with behavior so that it does not disrupt the group but still helps a particular child.

Criteria for When to Intervene

1. Reality Dangers. Teachers are better able than children to predict danger. If kids are playing in such a way that they are moving toward a danger situation, the teacher intervenes.

2. Protection Against too much Excitement. Sometimes a teacher intervenes in order to avoid the development of too much anxiety, excitement, and guilt in children. An example would be if the game would go on for 10 more minutes the children will lose control, mess up, etc. So the teacher intervenes.

3. Psychological Protection. An adult needs to protect children from psychological injury. For example, a group of boys may be ganging up on a child, scapegoating, using derogatory racial names, etc. The teacher needs to intervene.

4. Protection of Property. When children are in the process of destroying property, the teacher intervenes.

5. Protection of an On-going Program. Once a group is going well, it is not fair to have it ruined by one child having difficulty. The teacher must intervene.

6. Protection Against Negative Contagion. When tension is mounting in class, and a child begins causing trouble the teacher intervenes to stop this behavior from spreading.

7. Highlighting a Value Area or School Policy. Sometimes a teacher interferes when she wishes to illustrate a school policy or rule. It may, for example, illustrate why it is impossible for everyone to be first in line.

8. Avoiding Conflict in the Outside World. The outside world could be the next classroom or the whole community. If the behavior of children starts interfering with other groups, the teacher has to intervene.

9. Protecting a Teacher's Inner Comforts. Inner comfort should not be the first thing a teacher considers when deciding whether to intervene. However, if her health or safety is threatened - she may intervene.

Criteria for When not to Interfere

1. When the fuss it would create is not worth it! While this is a good guideline it could easily be overused. It could be easy, for instance to decide never to interfere because it would create a fuss. Most interference creates a fuss. You only decide *not* to create a fuss when the problem of concern is minimal.

2. The teacher decides to wait until the behavior deviates to the point where it is obvious not only to the child but to the whole group. This way, the child's typical defense ("You always pick on me") is gone.

3. The teacher is in too good a mood today. This *should not* be a guide as to when to not intervene.

Techniques for Interfering

1. **Planned Ignoring.** Some behavior will stop if not replenished by teacher attention. This is only good if the behavior will not spread to the other children and if the teacher is in control of *all* the reinforcers.

2. **Signal Interference.** Teachers have non-verbal techniques for expressing disapproval of behavior. They use such things as eye contact, hand gestures, tapping or snapping fingers, etc. This is most effective at the beginning stages of behavior.

3. **Proximity Control.** Teacher intervenes by moving close to a child having difficulty.

   The advantage of the first three techniques is that they don't embarras the child or identify him. They are minimal techniques that are most effective at the beginning stages of behavior. However, they are effective. *A good guide is to use the most minimal technique you feel can stop the behavior.*

4. **Interest Boosting.** If a child's interest is beginning to wane it may be a sign that he'll start having or causing problems. At this time, it is sometimes helpful for the teacher to show genuine interest in his school work or seek some other way of remotivating him. This may help him to mobilize to continue working. This is only effective if the assigned work is appropriate (not too easy, not too hard). If it is too hard for him this technique will not work.

5. **Tension Decontamination Through Humor.** A humerous comment can often break the tension in a class. The teacher must be careful, though, *not to be sarcastic*.

6. **Hurdle Lessons.** Sometimes a child is frustrated by the immediate classroom assignment. If the teacher picks this up she can prevent problems by giving the child help he needs before he gives up. Very similar to interest boosting except now one remotivates by helping the child over a hurdle.

7. Restructuring the Classroom Program. If the group cannot handle a particular activity, the teacher stops it and changes the activity.

8. Support from Routine. Some children misbehave during those times of the day that are relatively unstructured (example: recess, etc.). Carefully planned scheduling can prevent this.

9. Direct Appeal to Value Areas. To control behavior one technique is to appeal to students' internalized values. However, some children have internalized different values than teachers. Following are a list of value areas:

    a. An appeal to the relationship of the teacher and child (Do you think I've been unfair to you?)

    b. An appeal to reality consequences (If you continue to talk we won't have time to plan our party)

    c. An appeal to the child's group code and awareness of peer reaction (What do you think the other boys and girls will think of that?)

    d. An appeal to the teacher's power and authority (I can't allow that behavior)

10. Removing Seductive Objects. Teachers cannot compete against things like baseball bats, art supplies, etc. They should be removed from sight until they are needed.

11. Antiseptic Bouncing. When the child does not respond to verbal controls he needs to be removed. This is not punishment, but it is protection. He can return as soon as he is under control.

12. Physical Restraint. If the child is totally out of control, flailing, destroying property, etc., it will be necessary to physically hold him and talk calmly to him until he settles down.

Preventive Planning

Sometimes disruptive behavior can be avoided by developing a better classroom procedure. For example, if there are problems during transition periods (e.g., going to recess, changing activities, etc.), the teacher restructures these activities.

AREA: Interactive Techniques
LEVELS: PIJS
SOURCE: Teacher's Handling of Children in Conflict, Indiana University, 1961

Managing Surface Behavior of Children in School

Nicholas J. Long and Ruth G. Newman

Abridged from Nicholas J. Long and Ruth G. Newman, "A Differential Approach to the Management of Surface Behavior of Children in School," Teachers' Handling of Children in conflict, bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, XXXVII (July 1961), 47-61.

The organization of this selection is taken from Fritz Redl's training notes at the Child Research Branch of the National Institute of Mental Health, Bethesda, Maryland, 1957.

There are four major alternatives to handling behavior. They are: permitting, tolerating, interfering, and preventive planning. Redl emphasizes that no one of these alternatives is better than any of the others. The task is to find the right combination of techniques for each child.

Permitting behavior. Most rules in a school are made to inhibit and regulate the impulsive behavior of children. During the day, they are told in many ways to stop, slow down, and control their behavior. No one would argue against the importance of these rules in a group setting. If it is important for children to know what they cannot do, it is equally as important for children to know what they can do. For example, children should be told that it is permissible to run, shout, and scream on the playground, to be messy when they are fingerpainting, to have some degree of movement within the classroom, to go to the lavatory when necessary, to show some freedom of expression in their creative works, and to express an opposing view without being ridiculed or chastised. Children are reassured when they know in advance that their activities will not meet with adult frowns, shouts, or physical interference. More important, the sanctioning of behavior by adults eliminates much of the children's unnecessary testing of limits. A teacher who permits children to leave their desks and go to the book corner after they have finished the assignment should make this privilege clear. Then a child does not have to sneak a book and feel guilty about it or feel victorious about squeezing more freedom from the teacher than the child thinks he would expect.

Tolerating behavior. A lot of classroom behavior must be tolerated, but children should have no reason to believe that teachers approve or sanction it. The more common basic assumptions behind tolerating behavior are (1) learner's leeway, (2) behavior that reflects a developmental stage and (3) behavior that is symptomatic of a disease.

1. Learner's leeway: Whenever a child is learning a new concept, experimenting with ideas, or trying to win status in the group, the teacher should expect that the child will make mistakes. He should not expect that the child will do it perfectly. For example, many sensitive teachers tell their class that they are not going to be

upset when children err in trying to master new academic and social skills. With some groups, the more mistakes they make, i.e., on an arithmetic assignment, the easier it is for the teacher to help them clarify their misunderstanding. This was found to be true in the following incident:

I have noticed that Carole (third grader) become very upset if she made a mistake on an assignment. The children were writing to a railroad company for some free material, but they did not know how to address an envelope. I went to the board and showed them the proper form and asked them to practice. In a little while I noticed that Carole had her head on her desk. When I asked her what was the matter, she said that she couldn't do it and that she already had made three mistakes. I asked her to show me her work. (She had misspelled one word, did not capitalize one of the words, and had the return address crowded up in the upper left-hand corner.) I told Carole that these are the kinds of mistakes that many boys and girls make and that I did not expect her or any of the other children to do it perfectly the first three or four times that they tried. With this encouragement, she started again.

Sometimes it is helpful to talk about "good mistakes" versus "poor mistakes." A good mistake is made when a wrong answer has come out of some sense, so that the logic shines through the error. A poor mistake is one which rests largely on effort or has not even the semblance of logic.

2. Behavior that reflects a developmental stage: Some behavior is age typical and will change as the child becomes more mature. Any attempt on the part of the teacher to alter or inhibit this behavior results in such negligible changes that it usually is not worth the inevitable fight. For example, children in the early grades are impluse-ridden and motor-oriented. Every kindergarten teacher knows this and has accepted the fact that very little can be done about it except tolerate it. This state of tolerance should not be confused with sanctioning it or permitting wild behavior. Another example is that children in the late third or early fourth grade, caught between group pressure and allegiance to the teacher, are notorious for tattling; i.e., "Miss Jones, Johnny hit Mary," or "Johnny pulled a leaf off your flower when you were in the hall." Other illustrations of age-typical behavior are the unscrubbed, unhygienic appearance of the pre-adolescent boy, the primping of sixth-grade girls, the secrets of pre-adolescent girls, and the sex language and behavior of adolescent boys. A classroom example of age-typical behavior is presented below:

At noon, several fifth grade girls came bursting into the room relating a story about the fifth grade boys. The boys had discovered several pictures of nude women which were hidden in a bush on the playground. In small groups, they were examining the pictures in detail when a few of the fifth grade girls "worked their way in" to see what was taking place. The girls screamed and found their way to my room. They related the story; then the bell rang.

The boys entered (without pictures), as though nothing had happened. Silence prevailed. They knew that I knew. Finally, I asked one of the boys where the pictures were. He explained that they had hidden them in the bushes and planned to secure them after school for more detailed study. I asked another of the boys to bring the pictures into the room. This he did and I, without looking, threw them in the wastebasket.

Then we discussed the situation, emphasizing the value of good literature. The children themselves brought out the idea that such material was available at all newsstands and that anyone could buy it; however, the individual who is attempting to be a good citizen will by-pass such trash. Even the curious boys agreed with the majority viewpoint.

The pictures remained in the wastebasket until after school. Several students sought me out at the teacher's desk, casting glances at the wastebasket all the while. Others, whom I had never seen before, entered the room and quickly left upon finding me there.

Next morning the wastebasket was empty; the pictures were gone. I didn't see them again until I entered the boiler room, where they were on the wall-property of the school janitor.

3. Behavior which is symptomatic of an illness: When a child has a respiratory infection, the chances are that he will cough in class and that the symptom (coughing) will continue until the child is well. This cause and effect relationship is accepted among teachers; however, when a child who is emotionally disturbed shows the symptoms of his illness, such as recurring temper tantrums, fights, and irrational fears, the child is likely to be unpopular with his classmates, his teacher, and even with himself. A psychologically oriented teacher realizes that, when a child suffers from emotional problems, the symptoms are rarely conscious forms of meanness but are simply an explainable outlet for his intra-psychic conflicts. For example:

Some of the things that Martha did were fighting, tearing up other children's property, walking the floor constantly, tearing pages out of her book, name calling, and spitting. Although Martha makes me angry and caused all of us many problems, I feel we have grown a little in understanding that we all have problems and that the class is simply not divided into good and bad, accepted and unaccepted. Martha's behavior has improved during the year and, if I did anything to help it, I was doing it with kindness, firmness, and accepting her as an individual, rather than judging her on the basis of her actions.

Interfering with behavior. While the psychologically trained teacher is aware of long-range goals and is sensitive to the child's core problems, the teacher still has to handle the spontaneous behavior that occurs in the classroom. Some behavior has to be stopped if the classroom learning is to take place. A child cannot continue to act out all of his feelings. The task is to find ways of interfering with the behavior so that it does not disrupt the group greatly but still may be helpful to the particular child. Redl and Wineman in the Aggressive Child have listed 21 specific influence techniques that they have been able to identify in their work with aggressive boys. Twelve of these techniques will be developed as they apply to the positive management of children by the classroom teacher.

Before suggesting ways of intervening, the question of when a teacher should intervene needs to be considered. While this question cannot be settled without considering many variables, school psychologists have observed that too many teachers never set limits or intervene until they are choked with counter-aggressive feelings toward a child. When this happens, the teacher is likely to intervene in a way which is unhygienic and too severe. On the other hand, teachers have not been given any guide lines to help them with this difficult problem. They are not really sure whether they should interfere in a particular bit of behavior. Once again Redl gives us the direction and suggests the following criteria for intervention.

1. Reality dangers: Adults are usually more reality-oriented than children and have had more practice predicting the consequence of certain acts. If children are playing some crazy game, fighting, or playing with matches so that it looks as if they might injure themselves, then the teacher moves in and stops the behavior.

2. Psychological protection: Just as the adult protects the child from being physically hurt, he also should protect the child from psychological injury. If a group of boys is ganging up on a child, or scapegoating him, or using derogatory racial nicknames, then the teacher should intervene. The teacher does not support or condone this behavior and the values it reflects.

3. Protection against too much excitement: Sometimes a teacher intervenes in order to avoid the development of too much excitement, anxiety, and guilt in children. For example, if a game is getting out of hand and continues another 10 minutes, the children may lose control, mess up, and feel very unhappy about their behavior later. Once again, the teacher should intervene to stop this cycle from developing.

4. Protection of property: This is almost too obvious to mention, but sometimes it is easy to overlook. Children are not allowed to destroy or damage the school property, equipment, or building. When the teacher sees this, he moves in quickly and stops it. But at no time does he give the impression so common in our society that property is more important than people. Protecting property protects people.

5. Protection of an on-going program: Once a class is motivated in a particular task and the children have an investment in its outcome, it is not fair to have it ruined by one child who is having some difficulty. In this case, the teacher intervenes and asks this child to leave or to move next to him in order to insure that the enjoyment, satisfaction, and learning of the group is unimpaired.

6. Protection against negative contagion: When a teacher is aware that tension is mounting in the classroom and a child with high social power begins tapping his desk with his pencil, the teacher might ask him to stop in order to prevent this behavior from spreading to the other students and disrupting the entire lesson.

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7. Highlighting a value area or school policy: There are times when a teacher interferes in some behavior not because it is dangerous or disturbing but because he wishes to illustrate a school policy or rule which may lie slightly below the surface of the behavior. For example, he might want to illustrate why it is impossible for everyone to be first in line, or to point out how a misunderstanding develops when there is no intent to lie or to distort a situation. The focus is on poor communication.

8. Avoiding conflict with the outside world: The outside world in school can mean neighboring classrooms or the public. It is certainly justifiable to expect more control on the part of your children when they are attending an assembly or are on a trip than when they are in their classroom.

9. Protecting a teacher's inner comfort: Inner comfort is not the first thing to be considered by a teacher. If it is, he is in the wrong profession. For example, if a certain type of behavior makes a teacher feel exceptionally uncomfortable, the behavior may not need to be totally inhibited, but the teacher may have to learn to be more comfortable with it, whether he likes it or not.

It would be foolish, however, for a teacher, given limits of human endurance, to put himself in a situation in which he is abused constantly or serves as a punching bag for the class. This would not be healthy for anyone. The problem is to distinguish between behavior which is developmental or momentarily cathartic from behavior that is pathological in origin. Once a teacher recognizes his personal idiosyncrasies and realizes that he is over-reacting to the behavior, in the long run, he might better stop the behavior than do nothing and inwardly reject the child.

It is obvious that a teacher does not consciously work through all these hygienic steps before deciding to stop a behavior. However, the nine points listed above can serve as a guide or reference point against which one can examine his actions. What makes this whole process challenging and complicated is that the child behaves in a way which, according to the proposed list, ought to be stopped but under certain psycho-physical conditions the teacher does not stop it. After all, life is flexible and usually cannot be condensed into an orderly list of psychological procedures.

What are some of the counter indications against interfering, assuming that the behavior is not dangerous? (1) The fuss that it would create at this time is not worth it! The group confusion that is certain to follow might disguise the real purpose of the interference. In such a case it might be better to wait for another time. There is a written guaranty that it will come. (2) The teacher decides to wait until the behavior deviates to the point where it is obvious not only to the child but also to the entire group. This way the child's typical defenses, such as projection, i.e., "You're always picking on me," or "I never get a fair deal," are clearly inappropriate. (3) The teacher is in too good a mood today. He cannot work up enough genuine concern to impress the child and/or the group with the seriousness of the child's behavior. While this feeling is a common one, it should not be the barometer for intervention.

Before returning to the discussion on how to stop inappropriate behavior, there is a need to impress upon the readers that the following techniques are designed to help a teacher maintain the surface behavior of children over some rough spots. They only are stop-gap methods and do not substitute for a well-designed program or replace the teacher's knowledge of individual and group psychology.

The 12 influence techniques to be discussed are planned ignoring, signal interference, proximity control, interest boosting, tension decontiminator through humor, hurdle help, restricting the classroom program, support from routine, direct appeal, removal of seductive objects, antiseptic bouncing, and physical restraint.

1. Planned ignoring: Much of children's behavior carries its own limited power and will soon exhaust itself if it is not replenished, especially if the behavior is designed to "get the teacher's goat." Assuming that the behavior will not spread to others, it might be wise for the teacher to ignore the behavior and not feed into the child's need for secondary gratification. In the following example, the teacher is aware of the underlying meaning of the boy's behavior.

One technique that I find successful is to ignore disruptive behavior. It works most successfully with Frank. When he starts dropping his pencils, or tapping his feet, I know that it is a signal that I had better get over there in a few minutes and help him. I have found, however, that if I confront him with this behavior, he usually argues with me and causes additional problems.

In this example, the teacher responds to the motivation of the behavior and not to the manifestations of the behavior.

2. Signal interference: Teachers have developed a variety of signals that communicate to the child a feeling of disapproval and control. These non-verbal techniques include such things as eye contact, hand gestures, tapping or snapping fingers, coughing or clearing one's throat, facial frowns, and body postures. Such non-verbal techniques seem to be most effective at the beginning stages of misbehavior.

When a student is acting up in a mild way, I have found that a glance in his direction will usually stop the behavior temporarily. Usually I do not have to look at a child for a long time before he is aware that I am looking at him. I have also found that this technique is most helpful with those students who like me. Another signal that I have used is to stand up from my desk when there is a lot of whispering. I hasten to add that there are some children who would have me stand and look at them all day without it helping them control their behavior one bit.

3. Proxmity control: Every teacher knows how effective it is to stand near a child who is having some difficulty. Just as a crying infant will stop crying when he is picked up by his mother, although the actual source of discomfort still exists the early elementary child usually can control his impulses if he is close to the teacher. The teacher operates as a source of protection, strength, and identification. As one of the teachers explains:

One technique I have found helpful is to walk among the children. As I walk down the rows, I help the children having trouble with their work, or I give the bored ones something else to do. My closeness and help show that I am interested and concerned. It creates a better atmosphere and rapport and diminishes problems. I have found it very helpful and more effective than just standing behind the desk and telling them what to do. When I have a child who needs more than the usual help, I usually put his desk close to mine so that we are both aware of each other.

There are some children who not only need to have an adult close by but who also need the adult to touch them before they are able to control their impulses. This is done by having the teacher put his hand gently on the child's shoulder. This action should not be confused with the teacher who leaves five red marks after he has made physical contact with the child.

The advantages of these three techniques, planned ignoring, signal interference, and proximity control, are that they do not embarrass or even identify the child in the group. The teacher may use all three of these techniques while maintaining his classroom program.

4. Interest boosting: If a child's interest is waning and he is showing signs of restlessness, it is sometimes helpful for the teacher to show some genuine interest in the child's classroom assignment, asking whether problem 10 was very hard for him or mentioning his personal interest in athletics, cars, etc. Tapping a child's area of interest may help him mobilize his forces and view the teacher as a person whom he wants to please. One teacher described an experience with a child with whom he used this technique as follows:

Craig was crazy about dinosaurs. He read about them; he drew pictures of them; and he even had a plastic collection of them. As you can guess, Craig was a problem. He did not bother the boys or girls or defy me, but he would spend his class time either daydreaming or else drawing pictures of dinosaurs. I talked to him many times about this and he promised to stop, but the following day he was back at his drawings. I decided that if I could not fight him, perhaps I could join him in his interest. That night I spent the evening reading the Encyclopedia Britannica. The next day I told Craig that I was very interested in dinosuars, too, and even had a course in college that studied them. Craig was somewhat skeptical of my comment, but after I mentioned some vital statistics about dinosaurs he was impressed that I was an expert in the field. Together we studied dinosaurs but structured the work so that it would only take place after he had completed his regular assignments.

5. Tension decontamination through humor: There is nothing new about this technique. Everyone is aware of how a humorous comment is able to penetrate a tense and anxiety-producing situation. It clears the air and makes everyone feel more comfortable. The example below shows how one teacher used this technique to advantage.

I walked into my room after lunch period to find several pictures on the chalk board with "teacher" written under each one. I went to the board and picked up a piece of chalk, first looking at the pictures and then at the class. You could have heard a pin drop! Then I walked over to one of the pictures and said that this one looked the most like me but needed some more hair, which I added. Then I went to the next one and said that they had forgotten my glasses so I added them, on the next one I suggested adding a big nose, and on the last one a longer neck. By this time the class was almost in hysterics. Then, seeing that the children were having such a good time and that I could not get them settled easily, I passed out drawing paper and suggested that they draw a picture of the funniest person they could make. It is amazing how original these pictures were.

This example illustrates the phenomenon of group testing. The pictures were put on the board to test the vulnerability of the teacher. Some teachers would have reacted with sarcasm. They might have said that this was infantile behavior and not becoming a fifth-grade class. Other teachers might have given the class extra work or administered a group punishment, such as denial of recess or free time. However, this teacher demonstrated that she was secure, that a drawing could not cause her to regress or to become counter-aggressive, and that she could be counted on during stressful periods. Here is another excellent example of tension decontamination:

As soon as I entered the room two students who had remained in the room during the playground period informed me that Stella and Mary had a fight in the girls' restroom and were at present being seen by the principal. Since both of these girls are good pupils and are well liked by the class, I imagined that they and the class were wondering what I would do when the two girls returned to the room. Fifteen or 20 minutes elapsed before the girls returned. They entered and took their seats and the room became very quiet. I closed my book, looked at one of the girls and said in a rasping voice of a fight announcer, "And in this corner we have Stella, weighing 78 pounds." Everyone laughed. The tension vanished and we proceeded with our work.

Once again humor was used to communicate to the class that everything was all right, that there was no need to worry about it, and that the children could relax and return to their lessons.

6. Hurdle lessons: Disturbing behavior is not always the result of some inner problem. Sometimes the child is frustrated by the immediate classroom assignment. He does not understand the teacher's directions or is blocked by the second or third step in a complicated long-division problem. Instead of asking for help and exposing himself to the teacher's wrath for not paying attention or for exhibiting his educational inadequacies, the child is likely to establish contact with his neighbors, find some interesting trinket in his pocket, or draw on his desk. In other words, he is likely to translate his frustrations into motor behavior. The solution is to provide the child with the help he needs before the situation gets to this stage, as was done in the following example.

Sonya was very stubborn and usually persisted in not doing her work. After making an assignment, I would give the students some time to work on it in class. I would walk around the room and casually stop at Sonya's desk. Noting that she had not started, I would ask her some of her ideas and would suggest that she write those thoughts on paper. She could do the work and would do it if I explained it to her and personally got her interested in it. If I let her alone, she would usually sit and begin filing her nails or looking at the boy next to her who would become quite flushed. While this technique meant more work for me, it finally paid off because, as soon as she began working, she worked without assistance and began making passing grades.

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7. Restructuring the classroom program: How much can a teacher deviate from his scheduled program and still feel he is meeting his "teaching responsibilities?" Another way of asking this question is, "Does the teacher control the program, or does the program control the teacher?" For example, some teachers feel compelled to follow their class schedule with no "ifs," "ands," or "buts." Otherwise, they feel they cannot hope to complete the assigned course of study. Besides, they feel children must learn not to be affected by every passing emotion. They must learn how to concentrate even under undesirable circumstances. Other teachers voice a different position. They feel that the complexity of life and the many extenuating forces make it impossible to follow a standardized course. The task is not so much to teach children as to provide the conditions under which learning can take place. Perhaps these are straw arguments and the question that needs to be raised is, "Does restructuring a program ever facilitate learning?" "If so, under what conditions?" This takes the task out of the realm of "either-or" arguments and places it in the teacher's ability to predict the tension level of the class in terms of feelings of irritability, boredom, or excitement. If the teacher feels that the class is tense but that the tension is decreasing, he may decide not to redesign his program. However, if he decides that the tension needs to be drained off, i.e., verbalized or channelized, before the class can involve itself in the next assignment, he may change his program immediately. Two interesting examples are presented below:

Shortly before a grade school basketball tournament I was forced to cancel basketball practice for the evening. This met with much disapproval from the team members. The lesson for civics that day concerned labor strikes. As I walked into the classroom, I detected the basketball boys were signaling for everyone to remain silent. It looked as though they were going to have fine cooperation from the rest of the class. Seeming to be completely unaware of their intentions, I cancelled our discussion period and proceeded to assign them the written work at the end of the chapter. This work, I explained, was necessary before we could discuss the chapter adequately. The period was spent in constructive work and avoided a head-on clash. Later I talked to the boys and explained why I had to cancel the practice.

The next example of restructuring illustrates how a teacher created an atmosphere of comfort and relaxation.

The children were just returning to the room after the recess period. Most of them were flushed and hot from exercise, and were a little irritable. They were complaining of the heat in the room, and many of them asked permission to get a drink of water as soon as the final recess bell rang. I felt it would be useless to begin our history study as scheduled. So I told all of the children to lay their heads upon their desks. I asked them to be very silent for one minute and to think of the coolest thing they could imagine during that time. Each child then told the class what he had been thinking. The whole procedure lasted roughly 10 minutes, and I felt that it was time well spent. The history period afterward went smoothly, the atmosphere within the room relaxed, and the children were receptive.

8. Support from routine: We all need structure. Some children need much more than other children before they can feel comfortable and secure. Without these guideposts for behavior, some children become anxious and hyperactive. This is especially true during unstructured times, when children are moved by every wind and breeze of classroom behavior. Most beginning junior high school children find themselves in this state during the first few weeks. One boy summarized his feelings by saying, "It's like one great big surprise. Each hour you go to another teacher and you don't know what's going to happen until it's too late." To help these children, a daily schedule or program should be provided, as this may allay some of their feelings of anxiety. They can predict what is expected of them and prepare themselves for the next activity. As one teacher says:

Each morning I outline the activities for the day with one "leading question." I find that this is helpful to some of the children. When they come into class, they start thinking about the activities we have planned, instead of waiting for me to announce them. This saves time and eliminates the majority of random behavior.

9. Direct appeal to value areas: One of the most frequent mistakes of an untrained teacher is that he feels he must intervene severely and drastically in order to demonstrate that he has control of the situation. We know that this is not desirable. Another alternative is to appeal to certain values that the students have internalized. The conflict is that some children have not internalized the same values that the teacher has internalized. For example, a teacher cannot appeal to the child's sense of fairness, if the child feels he has been "gypped" out of something he has a right to possess. A partial list of some of the values that most teachers can appeal to includes: (a) An appeal to the relationship of the teacher with the child, i.e., "You are treating me as if I did something bad to you! Do you think I have been unfair to you?" (b) An appeal to reality consequences, i.e., "If you continue to talk, we will not have time to plan our party," "If you continue with this behavior, these are the things that will probably happen." In other words, the teacher tries to underline cause and effect behavior. (c) An appeal to the child's group code and awareness of peer reaction i.e., "What do you think the other boys and girls will think of that idea?" or "If you continue to spoil their fun, you can't expect the other boys and girls to like you." (d) An appeal to the teacher's power of authority. Tell the children that as a teacher you cannot allow this behavior to continue and still want to take care of them. The trick is to learn how to say "no" without becoming angry, or how to say "yes" without feeling guilty.

10. Removing seductive objects: Teachers have learned that they cannot compete against such seductive items as a baseball in a group of boys or a picture of the latest crooner in a group of pre-adolescent girls. Either the objects have to be removed or teachers have to accept the disorganized state of the group. It is not entirely the children's fault. Certain objects have a magnetic appeal and elicit a particular kind of behavior from children. For example, if a child has a flashlight, it says "Turn me on"; if he has a ball, it says

"Throw me"; if he has a magnifying glass, it says "Reflect the sunlight"; if he has a whistle, it says "Toot me"; if he has a pea shooter, it says "Shoot me"; and so on. These objects feed into the child's impulse system, making it harder for children to control their behavior. One of the most exasperating experiences in a teacher's lifetime is to set up a science corner only to have it fingered to death in the first five minutes of bell time.

11. Antiseptic bouncing: When a child's behavior has reached a point where the teacher questions whether the child will respond to verbal controls it is best to ask the child to leave the room for a few minutes -- perhaps to get a drink, wash up, or deliver a message. This was done in the following situation.

I had only one occasion to use antiseptic bouncing. One morning during arithmetic study period I became aware of giggling in the back of the room. I looked up to see that Joyce had evidently thought of something hilariously funny. I tried signal interference, and, though she tried to stop, she succeeded only in choking and coughing. By now most of the children around her were aware of the circumstances and were smothering laughter, too. I hurriedly wrote a note to the secretary of the principal's office explaining that Joyce "had the giggles" and asked that she keep her waiting for a reply until she seemed settled down. I asked Joyce if she would mind delivering the message and waiting for an answer. I think she was grateful for the chance to leave the room. When she returned, she appeared to have everything controlled, as had the class, and things proceeded normally.

In antiseptic bouncing there is no intent of punishing the child but simply to protect and help him and/or the group to get over their feelings of anger, disappointment, uncontrollable laughter, hiccups, etc. Unfortunately, many schools do not have a place that would not connote punishment to which the classroom teacher can send a child. To send him to the principal where he sits on the mourner's bench is not very helpful and defeats the purpose of nonpunitive management. However, with staff planning, it is amazing what alternatives can be found.

12. Physical restraint: Once in a while a child will lose complete control and threaten to injure himself or others. In such emergencies, the child needs to be restrained physically. He should be held firmly but not roughly. Once again there is no indication of punishment, but only a sincere concern to protect the child from hurting anyone. If a feeling of protection is to be communicated, such techniques as shaking, hitting, or spanking him only make it harder for him to believe that the teacher really wants to help him. Some teachers who are ignorant about psychodynamics feel that a child should be punished for such inappropriate and deviant behavior. However, if these same teachers ever had a chance to observe a child who has lost complete control over his impulses, they would soon realize how frightening and fearful this experience is for the child. These teachers would see the suffering and anguish these children go through. It is no game with them, but strikes at their basic feelings of survival.

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The preferred physical hold is for the adult to cross the child's arms around his side while the adult stands behind him holding on to the child's wrists. Occasionally it is necessary to hold a child on the floor in this position. There is no danger that the child can injure himself in this position although he might scream that you are hurting him, or causing him considerable physical pain. Many of the children who need this type of control, go through four different phases. First, the child fights being held and controlled. He becomes enraged and says and does things that are fed by feelings of frustration, hate and desperation. He may swear, bite, and carry on in a primitive way. Most teachers who are not used to being treated this way, find it difficult to absorb this much aggression without becoming frightened and/or counter-aggressive. While we can be sympathetic towards this teacher he must provide the child with non-aggressiveness handling that he needs during this crisis situation. A professional nurse doesn't take away a patient's antibiotics because he happens to vomit on her. Likewise, a teacher does not reject a child when he needs adult controls the most. The teacher's control system must take over for the child's until his controls are operating again.

During the first stage it is sometimes helpful for the teacher to tell the child softly that he is all right, that in a little while he is going to get over his angry feelings, and that he (the teacher) is going to take care of him and not let him hurt anyone or anything. Once the child realizes that he cannot break away and that he is being controlled, the rage usually turns to tears. This is phase two. At this point the child's defenses are down, his coat of toughness has vanished and his inadequacy and immaturity become evident. After this period the child usually becomes silent or asks to be let go, which is phase three. If the teacher thinks the child has control over his feelings and is not going to start the cycle all over again, the teacher should release his hold on the child. It must be emphasized that the teacher, not the child, makes the decision. One evidence that the child is gaining control over his impulses is that his language becomes more coherent and logical. If the child knows who he is, where he is, and what has happened, he is usually on his way up the ladder of integration. As he gains controls, the child usually has to save face, which is often accomplished by pulling away from the teacher or making a sly remark. This is phase four and usually a good sign that the child is ready to move on his own power. Next, the teacher may ask the child to go to the washroom and clean up.

Occasionally, a child may have to be held in the classroom, but this should be avoided whenever possible. If it cannot be avoided, one of the students should get the principal immediately so that the child can be removed from the class. Later, the teacher needs to explain to the class and to the child exactly what has happened in order to counter any delusional interpretations of the teacher's behavior.

An important point to remember is that whenever a teacher holds a child and is able to control his own personal feelings of anxiety and aggression, the chances are that his relationship with this child will improve significantly. The message the child receives is: "I care enough about you to protect you from your own frightening impulses. The fact you had to be held is no point against you. I'm not angry, but pleased that you are feeling more comfortable and are in control of your emotions." This kind of support

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can only foster the child's feeling that the teacher is a person whom he can trust.

Preventive planning. The fourth of Redl's four alternatives is preventive planning. Sometimes disruptive behavior can be avoided by developing a better school and classroom procedure. If a teacher always has difficulty during transitional periods, if there is undue conflict on the playground or in the corridors, the disturbing behavior cannot be attributed solely to "problem children" -- perhaps the school program is inadeqate. For example, if a teacher bores, fatigues, or regiments children into acting out, their behavior cannot be explained in terms of inner conflicts but simply in terms of a poor living design for healthy children. One teacher solved her problem as follows:

> In a large elementary school in the heart of Detroit, the staff's major problem during the snowy months was snowballing. Although more teachers were scheduled for playground duty and the severity of the penalty was increased, the problem did not diminish. The children still threw snowballs, but they were much more clever about it. One teacher who was unhappy about additional playground duty suggested that they paint a huge circular target on the back brink wall of the two-story school and actually program more snowballing. After much discussion and apprehension, the idea was presented to the students. They thought it was a wonderful idea, so a student-faculty committee was appointed to draw up some rules and regulations. Once the target was drawn, the problem of snowballing was virtually eliminated. The children threw all their energy into hitting the bull's eye rather than one another. Some children would actually come to school early just so they could have the highest daily score. One teacher commented that many of the "problem children" were very active in this activity and threw themselves out by the time school began. He reported that they were even easier to teach . . .

LEVELS: PIJS
SOURCE: Unknown
PURPOSE: Planning sheet for behavioral change program, prioritizing and listing behaviors and interventions.

BEHAVIOR ORIENTATION PROGRAM

(B.O.P.)

STUDENT'S NAME ______________________ DATE: ______________

AGE (Date of Birth) ______________________ Grade (Or level) ________

BEHAVIORS TO BE INTERFERED WITH	SUGGESTED TECHNIQUES
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.

BEHAVIORS TO BE PERMITTED	SUGGESTED HANDLING
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.

BEHAVIORS TO BE ENCOURAGED	SUGGESTED TECHNIQUES
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.

AREA: Adjunctive Therapy
LEVEL: PIJ
SOURCE: Nicholas Karagan, Ph.D., University of Iowa

TREATMENT OF CHILDHOOD ENCOPRESIS

Encopresis refers to fecal soiling not to illness or organic disease. It is generally associated with functional megacolon and can be seen as early as 6 to 8 months of age, but more characteristically is not seen before 1 to 2 years of age. A 3:1 male predominance with a peak incidence in the 3 to 6 year age group is reported.

Functional megacolon begins initially with voluntary withholding of stools. This may result from a hard, large diameter stool which produces pain on passage and possibly creates perianal irritation or anal fissures. Subsequent stool passage will continue to cause pain and the child learns to avoid discomfort by suppressing the urge to defecate. Voluntary withholding then becomes involuntary as it requires more and more stool to provide sufficient stretch of colonic musculature to create the urge to defecate. Encopresis then results as liquid stool seeps around the impacted stool. Other initiating events include acute infantile colic, URI or other minor illness, travel, significant emotional stress, death in the family, parental separation or strife, a move to a new home, and the start of school. Of possible significance is an inadequate water or fruit intake in an infant's diet.

Fecal soiling usually occurs several times a day once the pattern is established. Associated symptoms are painful defecation, anal fissures, occasional passage of very large stools which may obstruct the home plumbing, and urinary frequency. Also seen are abdominal pain, distension, anorexia, and irritability.

Evaluation of encopresis should include a careful history and physical exam.

THE KARAGAN TREATMENT METHOD

The following method is advised once examination has established the existance of encopresis based upon chronic constipation or functional megacolon.

There are three steps in the Karagan Treatment Method. First, it is necessary to increase the frequency and amount of B.M., second to increase the frequency and amount of B.M. in the toilet, and finally, a followup program. General considerations for presenting the program will be detailed first, followed by each of the necessary steps.

I. General Considerations in Presentation of Program to Patient and Family

A. The program should be presented after a thorough history has been taken and an appropriate physical exam has been made.

B. The approach should be positive, optimistic and supportive. Parent and patient should be consulted about the program together, stressing the following points:

1. Encopresis is not an uncommon problem and effective treatment is available. The message should be "We can help."

2. Although the soiling has been a source of much stress and conflict within the family, it can be alleviated in most cases and associated stress will thereby be diminished.

3. The child's encopresis is not to be seen as a sign of hostility and resistance, but as a symptom of a physical problem. Carefully explain to the parent that most encopretic children are actually chronically constipated.

C. Obtain child's commitment to cooperate and indicate to parent and child that you are assuming responsibility for child's compliance in taking medicines and sitting on the toilet at required times. If child does not comply, parent is to call immediately for an appointment to discuss cooperation.

D. Obtain parent's commitment to comply in giving medication, reminding child to sit on toilet, recording stools and not being negative with the child. Point out that the major source of program failure is parental neglectfulness.

E. Many parents, discouraged by previous attempts to deal with the problem, will immediately ask, "What if this doesn't work?" Explain that on return visit you can examine what didn't work, i.e., child not cooperating, inadequate or excessive stool softeners, poor parental follow-through, need for revision of toileting, times, etc. Any components may be revised.

II. Increase the Frequency and Amount of B.M.

This is of critical importance, especially when the problem is one of chronic constipation, which is the most common cause of encopresis. The steps include:

A. Beginning with the first day of treatment, the patient is to receive 15-30 cc of Milk of Magnesia (MOM) (1-2 tbsp.) at bedtime. The parent is to supervise this. Tell the parent to be sure to use standard measuring spoons, or a measuring cup may be used. Usually 2 tbsp. is the initial dosage and the MOM may be increased to 45cc (3 tbsp.) limit.

B. If fecal impaction exists, cleansing enemas (Fleets, Travid) should be administered, usually at home by a parent. Usually, 2 per day (AM and PM) for two consecutive days are sufficient. If the patient has retained an unusually large amount of stool, additional enemas may be required. This process is often somewhat uncomfortable for the patient, but it is necessary. The patient and parent should have a clear idea of what to expect. Also, many parents will require instruction in the enema administration.

C. The parent should feel free to decrease the MOM if stools are especially runny. Changes in dosage, either increases or decreases, should be gradual, i.e., 1 tsp. every third day.

III. Increase the Frequency and Amount of B.M. in the Toilet

A. The parent is to remind the child to sit on the toilet for 5 minutes at three regular times. There should be no deviation from the 5 minute period, and a kitchen timer or clock should be used. These times are to be specified by the therapist in consultation with the parent. Typical times are morning, mid-afternoon and bedtime. The parent should write down the times for toileting.

B. After each time the child is on the toilet, the parent is to inspect and record the content of the bowl. The child is not to flush the toilet prior to these examinations.

The parent should also record the consistency of the stool; i.e.:

1. hard
2. soft-formed
3. soft, unformed (fluid but not watery)
4. liquid, watery

Watery stools are an indication that the stool softeners should be decreased.

C. There is to be no demand, expressed or implied, for the child to produce a B.M. each time on the toilet. The parent is to record the contents with little or no comment.

D. Parent should also record any incidents of soiling. The child should not be punished for soiling. Rather, child should be cleaned (or clean self if old enough) and then shall sit on the toilet for 5 minutes after any soiling.

VI. Followup Program

A. Stool softeners should be gradually withdrawn. About 1/2 of the patients will require occasional stool softeners for a prolonged period. The problem is one of long-term management of chronic constipation. A very few clients may continue to require an occasional enema.

B. Parental reminders to toilet should continue at least once daily until child has been symptom-free for two weeks.

C. If the patient remains unimproved after three months, additional studies, i.e., barium enemas, etc., should be undertaken.

V. An occasional, excessively discordant family may be utterly unable to follow the program, even after numerous visits. Such patients will require referral for mental health services. An occasional child may need hospitalization for completion of the program. In addition, some patients may have retained so much stool that numerous enemas are required to disimpact them. These patients may also be hospitalized to complete that process.

VI. Clinical Results

Results achieved at University Hospitals, Iowa City, indicate high levels of success. The experimental sample includes 38 encopretic children, including 6 subjects who were not constipated but were never adequately toilet trained. Frequency of complete bowel movements prior to treatment ranged from daily to less than once per month.

Of this sample, at followup, approximately 52% were symptom-free and no longer required stool softeners, 31% were not soiling, but required continued treatment with stool softeners, and 2% were improved but not symptom-free. Of the remainder, 5% were referred subsequently for psychiatric treatment and in 7% no followup data was available.

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AREA: Adjunctive Therapy
LEVEL: PIJ
SOURCE: Bob Gallagher, School Social Worker, Keystone AEA #1
ADAPTED FROM: Karagan Method

SCHOOL-HOME TREATMENT PROGRAM FOR ENCOPRESIS

The treatment program being described has two purposes. The first is to make the student as responsible for his behavior as is possible through the use of natural and logical consequences combined with a treatment program that has been proven to be effective. The second purpose is to provide enough structure and routine so that the problem with encopresis ceases to exist. Encopresis often appears to be the result of what is termed "functional megacolon" which begins initially with a voluntary withholding of stools. This may result from a hard compacted large diameter stool which produces pain on passage and possibly will continue to cause pain. The child then learns to avoid discomfort by supressing the urge to defecate. Voluntary withholding then becomes involuntary as it requires more and more stool to provide sufficient stretch of the colon musculature to create the urge to defecate. In a sense, the nerve endings that bring about the sensation of needing to defecate become desensitized to the point that it takes an unusually large amount of stool to bring about the same sensations that normal children feel. Encopresis then results when liquid stool seeps around the impacted stool. The program being described here is being taken largely from the Karagan treatment method employed by Iowa City with modifications that are the results of investigation into research on Encopresis.

I. Increasing the frequency and amount of Bowel movement (B.M.)

   A. Two days prior to entering the ED program the student will be administered two enemas per day in addition to two tablespoons of Milk of Magnesia at bedtime.

   B. Dietary changes

      1. There is to be a significant increase in the fluid intake, especially water. Eight glasses per day is recommended.

      2. There will be a significant increase in bulk intakes. This includes fresh fruits, leafy vegetables, grains, and high fiber foods.

      3. There will be an abstinance from foods that are known to be constipating. These include apples, rice, milk, milk products, cheese, and cheese products.

II. Increase the frequency and amount of B.M. in the toilet.

   A. Milk of Magnesia in a dosage of two tablespoons per day will be continued.

   B. Adults will remind the student to sit on the toilet three times per day. The first time will be upon rising and the parent will be responsible for this reminder. The second time will be upon returning after noon recess and the class teacher will be responsible for this reminder. The third time will be after supper and, once again, the parent will be responsible for this reminder. As the program progresses, the student will be encouraged to assume responsibilities for these toilet times without reminders.

C. When the student sits on the toilet, he is to do so for a minimal period of 5 minutes. A timer may be used. If the student needs more time than this, he is free to choose to do so. The student may need to be instructed on how to set the timer for a period of 5 minutes and is to do so under adult supervision.

D. The adult and the student will chart the amount and consistency of stool produced using the following scale:

- Amount is to be charted using this 3-point scale:

1. (S) small
2. (A) average
3. (L) large

Consistency is to be rated using the following 4-point scale:

1. (H) hard
2. (SF) soft-formed
3. (SU) soft, unformed (fluid but not watery)
4. (L) liquid, watery

If stools are liquid and water, Milk of Magnesia is to be decreased by 1/2 a tablespoon until consistency reaches an acceptable level.

E. There is to be no demand expressed or implied for the student to produce a B.M. each time on the toilet. Adults and the student will record the results with little or no comment. Simply stating "good job" when the student has produced a B.M. is sufficient. No comment is appropriate when the student has not produced.

F. Adults with the student should record the incidences of soiling with no comment other than "change." Upon soiling the student is to immediately sit for a period of 5 minutes on the toilet after which he/she will be responsible for cleaning and changing clothes, rinsing out the soiled clothes, putting them in a plastic bag, and then putting that in a brown grocery bag which will be taken home that evening.

The student is not be punished for soiling. Rather he/she is to be responsible for cleaning self, rinsing out clothes, placing them in a plastic bag, changing into new clothes, and washing soiled clothes at home. Upon arriving at home the student is to immediately wash and dry these clothes, place them in a clean brown bag and place the bag by the door. The next morning the student will return the clean clothes to school.

TITLE: Encopresis Chart

LEVEL: PIJS

PURPOSE: Provides structure and monitoring method to program.

PROCEDURE: Adult and student chart regularly following each toilet time according to the code provided.

COMMENTS: Used successfully in Dubuque Community School's Emotional Disabilities Programs.

STUDENT ENCOPRESIS CHART

Record any stool, and indicate whether it is hard (H), soft but formed (SF), soft and unformed (SU), or liquid (L). Record amount with (S) small, (A) average, or (L) large. If no stool is produced, record 0. Record any soiling on the back of this form.

Date	Stool Amount/Consistency		Date	Stool Amount/Consistency		Date	Stool Amount/Consistency	

AREA: Adjunctive Therapy
LEVELS: PIJS
SOURCE: Teaching Exceptional Children, Summer, 1979

Using Bibliotherapy with Emotionally Disturbed Children

ALMA E. RUSSELL
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Bibliotherapy is a teaching technique that can be used successfully in classrooms for emotionally disturbed children. It is an extensive rather than an intensive teaching tool in that it should be spread out over a period of time. Approaches to bibliotherapy should overlap and coordinate with other ventures into teaching in the affective domain.

Through reading materials, individuals can fulfill needs, relieve pressures, and promote mental and emotional health. It is the teacher's responsibility to choose materials that allow for "a process of dynamic interaction between the personality of the reader and the literature" (Russell & Shrodes, 1950, cited in Hoagland, 1972, p. 391). The teacher can ensure that there has been an interaction between the child and the book through use of a variety of followup activities (Weissenberg, 1973).

EFFECTIVENESS OF BIBLIOTHERAPY

Effective use of bibliotherapy in the classroom hinges on the child reading books. The teacher should have operating in the classroom some means of inducing the pupils to read. Some suggested techniques include positive reinforcement, self charting of books read, and use of the Premack Principle. Whatever the method used, it should be consistent and harmonious with the total classroom environment. If the pupils are not already reading freely and with purpose, it is strongly suggested that the teacher actuate an interest in reading before attempting to use bibliotherapeutic means to remediate emotional problems.

In order for bibliotherapy to be effective, the child must undergo three phases during or immediately after reading a book (Hoagland, 1972):

1. *Identification.* The child must be personally involved and identify himself in the literature. The child must see himself or see a situation similar to some of his own situations. Sometimes achieving this step is necessarily a trial-and-error situation for the teacher because he [the teacher] does not see the child as the child perceives himself and therefore makes many mistakes in selecting books for the child.
2. *Catharsis.* The child must release his emotional tensions surrounding the problem.
3. *Insight.* The child must integrate his intellectual perceptions with his emotional drives. He must come to a better understanding or awareness through empathizing with a character, plot, or relationship.

Suitable books for a bibliotherapeutic program can be selected from a number of sources that have extensive bibliographies cross indexed according to theme and age level (Anderson & Miner, 1971; Kircher, 1966; Moody & Limper, 1971; Reid, 1972). The teacher should select books according to the following criteria (Cianciolo, 1965). The selections should:

1. Focus on a particular need.
2. Be written on the child's level.
3. Center on the problem.
4. Have realistic approaches.
5. Have lifelike characters.
6. Accurately depict groups the characters represent.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

The following learning activities can be used with groups or with individual students. A pupil can present a brief summary of a book so the rest of the class can participate in an activity with him. In almost any activity where books are used, films, poems, or recordings would be just as appropriate. Some well known and often practiced techniques are easily adaptable to many learning processes. These include role playing, dramatization and skits, puppetry, and use of pictures to guide discussion. The content of the activities will vary significantly with the context of the books used.

DISCUSSION TECHNIQUES

Cianciolo (1965) suggested the following steps for discussing a book:

1. Retell the story, emphasizing incidents, feelings, relationships, and behaviors.
2. Probe changes of feeling, relationships, and behaviors.
3. Identify similar events from the reader's life or other readings.
4. Explore the consequences that occurred.
5. Make a conclusion or generalization about the consequences or helpfulness of alternative behaviors.

The following guidelines can be followed to help the reader (Bryan, 1939, cited in Hoagland, 1972):

1. Give the reader the feeling he is not the first person to encounter a particular problem.
2. Permit the reader to see that there is more than one choice and more than one solution.
3. Help the reader see the basic motivation of people involved in similar situations.
4. Help the reader see values in experience in human rather than in material terms.
5. Provide the facts needed to solve a problem.
6. Encourage the reader to plan and execute a course of action.

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Diamante Poetry

This poetry writing activity was designed to induce pupils to think in terms of their own feelings and in terms of how one feeling can become another. The poem itself is a progression from a single word to its antonym. It is free form verse and the writing of it requires only adhering to the following form:

Line 1 The starting word, usually a noun.
Line 2 *Two descriptors for the starting word,* usually adjectives.
Line 3 Three action words that tell about the starting word, usually participles.
Line 4 Four words that make a transition from starting to final word.
Line 5 Three action words that tell about the final word, usually participles.
Line 6 Two descriptors for the final word, usually adjectives.
Line 7 The final word, an antonym for the starting word.

____
________ ________
________ ________ ________
________ ________ ________ ________
________ ________ ________
________ ________
____

The following is an example of a diamante poem (Wolsch, 1970, p. 157).

War
Bitter, violent,
Frowning, crying, hating,
Dream of the world,
Smiling, laughing, loving,
Sweet, calm,
Peace.

Some suggested words to use in writing diamante poetry are *reject-accept, ignore-beckon, friend-enemy, hostility-friendship.*

Student Made Questionnaires

The following is an example of how a pupil can execute his own followup to a book (Weissenberg, 1973). It could be adapted to many situations.

Tom's behavior changed markedly for the worse after a new sister was born. The teacher placed a couple of books about the introduction of a new family member in a strategic place. Tom read the books and discussed them with the teacher.

Then, Tom prepared and typed a questionnaire that probed how many pupils had babies in their families and how they felt about the babies. He distributed the questionnaires to the pupils on his hall. Later, he tabulated and graphed the results of his study. Through this process he better understood that his feeling of rejection from the family were not unusual and, furthermore, if other pupils' feelings were any judge, they would probably pass shortly.

Words of Rejection

For this activity, the teacher can make two columns on the chalkboard labeled "Words of Rejection" and "Words of Acceptance." The pupils can then suggest words and/or phrases to place in the appropriate columns.

Roadblock

For this activity, use the following procedure (Neel, 1972):

1. The teacher or a pupil reads or tells a story up to the point where a character is in a dilemma.
2. The pupils suggest ways in which the character might cope with the situation.
3. Each time a suggestion is made, the teacher holds up a sign saying *Roadblock* and blocks the suggestion with a realistic objection.
4. The pupils continue suggesting alternatives.
5. At the end of the game, all suggestions are analyzed in terms of practicality, feasibility, and threat to self.
6. After a few rounds, the pupils can take turns being the blockers.

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AREA: Adjunctive Therapy
LEVELS: PIJS
SOURCE: Exceptional Children, April 1975

The Role of Bibliotherapy in Reading Instruction

Delwyn G. Schubert

Bibliotherapy is helping students to help themselves solve their personal problems through reading. Shrodes (1955) has defined it as "a process of dynamic interaction between the personality of the reader and imaginative literature which may engage his emotions and free them for conscious and productive use" (p. 24). For example, Dr. Lonnie Emrich, a speech professor, helps stutterers by having them read biographical accounts of great men who have stuttered. Some of these stutters include Charles Darwin, Charles Lamb, Joseph Lister, Somerset Maugham, and King George VI. Regarding his success with the approach, Dr. Emrich (1966) stated:

> Adolescent stutterers have responded to therapy much more rapidly since the adoption of this introductory study of famous stutterers. One ninth grader gained needed morale and relieved the conspiracy of silence surrounding his speech problem by giving a report in his English class about Charles Lamb, drawing comparisons from Lamb's life to modern theories of etiology as well as to his own situation . . . Bibliotherapy concerning the lives of well-known stutterers thus appears to provide a non-threatening introduction to objective analysis of the stutterer's own present problems. (p. 79)

Dynamics of Bibliotherapy

Just how does bibliotherapy work? What mechanisms are involved? Russell and Shrodes (1950) have suggested that bibliotherapy, like psychotherapy, involves three mechanisms: identification, catharsis, and insight. Of the three, identification is by far the most important.

The likelihood of encountering a character in a story or book with whom a reader can identify is dependent on the reader's experiences, attitudes, values, desires, and needs. But when the reader recognizes in the character certain problems and difficulties similar to his own, the mechanisms of catharsis and insight are likely to become operative.

According to Spache (1963, pp. 323-324) as the process expands, the reader experiences catharsis, an emotional sharing of the feelings and motivations of the character in the book or story being read. Dependent on his experiences and emotional depth, the reader relives the conflicts and emotions of his alter ego. Catharsis goes beyond intellectual identification into the realm of empathetic emotional reactions. This deepens the bibliotherapeutic process.

Finally, insight takes place when the reader realizes that he can make a more satisfactory adjustment to life or can solve his difficulties by adapting or imitating the actions of the character whose problems are comparable to his own.

Bibliotherapy in the Classroom

Many teachers recognize the importance of meeting the personality needs of their pupils. Rather than devoting all their time to teaching reading per se, these teachers wish to help students discover books for recreational reading in which they may meet a character facing a problem or situation similar to their own. In order to do this successfully, the teacher must become well acquainted with both the pupils' problems and a large number of children's books. It is helpful for the teacher to work closely with the librarian in a mutual effort to find books to meet highly individual needs.

The teacher can learn about the kinds of problems a pupil faces by the use of interest inventories, observations, interviews, and discussion. Questions such as the following have also proved valuable:

1. If you had three wishes which might come true, what would you wish for?

2. Are you afraid of anything? If so, what?

3. What things do you worry about?

4. What bothers you?

5. What don't you like about yourself?

Questions 3, 4, and 5 would be especially valuable in eliciting written responses from older students.

Certain personality tests can be used by classroom teachers who wish to supplement their subjective judgment of children's personalities. Tests such as the California test of Personality (Thorpe, Clark, and Tiegs) may give helpful information. When employing such tests, teachers should consider that poor readers may misinterpret questions. Reading the questions aloud for the child is not recommended since tests are not standardized in this way and the norms would be inapplicable.

Bibliotherapy in Action

Sometimes a single book can prove helpful to an emotionally or mentally disturbed individual. For example, Shrodes (1955) described a Chinese American girl who was disturbed because she had attended college against her parents' will and then refused to marry a man they had chosen for her. By reading the novel The Way of All Flesh, she recognized in Christina and Theobald

> the same qualities that enraged her in her own parents. But she also perceived that they were severe and bigoted, like Ernest's parents, because they had been subjected to pressures beyond their control. This recognition gave her the necessary detachment to continue college without feelings of ambivalence and guilt. (p. 27)

In other instances, bibliotherapy is not effective until the individual has been exposed to a series of books. Roswell and Natchez (1964) described the case of Claude, a 12 year old boy in the seventh grade, who had difficulties

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in reading and spelling. Claude was a loner with few friends. His mother reported that "everyone felt sorry for him." Initially, the clinician working with Claude found him resistant and indifferent toward school and concluded that establishing a good relstionship with the boy would be a difficult task to achieve. But after Claude read and reacted to a number of stories and books in which he was able to relate to characters who were lonely, rejected, and ridiculed, he underwent a change. "Claude was slowly able to develop positive feelings about himself. Gradually his self-image changed from a person who felt worthless to one who at last had something to offer." (p.73)

Bibliotherapy for Whom?

Who can be helped through bibliotherapy? Practically anyone. Bibliotherapy can be used successfully at any age and grade level; as soon as a child can read, he is amenable to bibliotherapy. It can be of benefit to the mentally slow, the average, and the gifted, but it is particularly suitable for the latter because gifted children are often voracious readers who may need help in their social relations (Strang, Checovitz, Gilbert & Scoggin, 1944).

Many other groups can also profit from bibliotherapy, the wide application of which is evident in the literature. A few of the sources that list specific books and techniques to use with different groups of children are as follows:

1. Exceptional Children:

   Barbe, W. Meeting the needs of exceptional children. Education, 1964, 84, 476-479.

   Weingarten, S. Reading can help gifted adolescents. Reading Teacher, 1956, 9, 219-225.

2. Handicapped Children:

   Cohoe, E. Bibliotherapy for handicapped children. NEA Journal, 1960, 49, 34-36.

3. Mentally and Emotionally Disturbed:

   Moore, T. Bibliotherapy. In The Nature and Treatment of Mental Disorders (2nd ed.). New York: Grune & Stratton, 1951.

   Witty, P. Reading to meet emotional needs. Elementary English, 1952, 29, 75-84.

   Wolfson, B. Reading about emotions in the primary classroom. Elementary English, 1954, 31, 146-149.

4. Racially Prejudiced Children:

   Sr. Mary Agnes. Influence of reading on the racial attitudes of adolescent girls. Catholic Educational Review, 1947, 45, 415-420.

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Fisher, F. Influences of reading and discussion on the attitudes of fifth graders toward American Indians. Journal of Educational Research, 1968, 62, 130-134.

Jackson, E. Effects of reading upon attitude toward the Negro Race. Library Quaterly, 1955, 14, 47-54.

5. Retarded Readers:

Kantrowitz, V. Bibliotherapy with retarded readers. Journal of Reading, 1967, 11, 205-212.

6. Socially Maladjusted Children:

Sr. Mary Agnes. Bibliotherapy for socially maladjusted children. Catholic Educational Review, 1946, 44, 8-16.

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Emrich, L. Bibliotherapy for stutterers. Quarterly Journal of Speech, 1966, 52, 74-79.

Roswell, F., & Natchez, G. Reading Disability: Diagnosis and Treatment. New York: Basic Books, 1964.

Russell, D., & Shrodes, C. Contributions of research in bibliotherapy to the language-arts program. School Review, 1950, 58, 335-342; 411-420.

Shrodes, C. Bibliotherapy. The Reading Teacher, 1955, 9, 24.

Spache, G. Toward Better Reading. Champaign IL: Garrard Publishing Co., 1963.

Strang, R., Checovitz, A., Gilbert, C., & Scoggin, M. Gateways to Readable Books. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1944.

Thorpe, L. P., Clark, W.W., & Tiegs, E.W. The California Test of Personality. Monterey: California Test Bureau.

Delwyn G. Schubert is Professor of Education and Reading Clinic Director, California State University, Los Angeles.

AREA: Adjunctive Therapies
LEVEL: PIJS
SOURCE: Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1

RECREATIONAL THERAPY

EMOTIONAL DISABILITIES JOGGING PROGRAM

Rational

Jogging is a structured, locomotor activity not dependent on complex athletic abilities or the social skills required of most sports designed for school-aged children. Research suggests that 10 minutes of jogging daily can promote fitness, reduce stress, provide success experiences, and improve the student's self-concept. When used in conjunction with programs for emotionally disabled students, a demonstrable effect on classroom behavior occurs. E.D. students show a decrease in negative classroom behavior, displaying less disruptive and more on-task behavior. Such research supports the use of jogging to meet both the physical and social-psychological needs of emotionally disabled students.

Student Goal

To keep moving at a jogging pace for the entire 10-minute jogging period . . .

The student competes against his own record in distance and endurance, rather than with classmates.

Procedures

A 10-minute jogging session will be conducted daily by each E.D. classroom at a regularly scheduled teacher designated time, at least one hour following eating.

Jogging will be preceeded by a warm-up period to include:

1) stretching exercises
2) a fast paced walking of one lap

Likewise, each session will be wrapped up with a cool down of walking one lap.

The classroom teacher and/or aide will jog regularly with the students, one serving as the "pace setter" while the other records laps/time and supervises in a disciplinary role as necessary. Any misbehavior observed by the "pace setter" will be turned over to the recorder for carrying out the consequences.

Rules & Consequences

While jogging should be a positive non-threatening experience in a relaxed, supportive atmosphere, rules and subsequent consequences are necessary for this population:

Rules

1) keep with the "pace setter" (do not pass)
2) keep moving
3) no racing
4) keep hands to self
5) talk quietly
6) run heel to toe
7) no drinking during jogging

The logical consequence for failure to follow the above rules is time out or loss of the privilege to jog on that particular day.

Appropriate behavior will be reinforced through the regular classroom point system where the student should be able to earn (or lose) points as he would during any other work period/activity throughout the school day.

Motivation

Maintenance of interest and effort will be assisted through use of charts to pictorially represent individual progress. In addition to the overall goal of jogging for the entire 10-minute duration, students will be recognized for completing 5, 10, 15 miles, etc.

Charting of progress should take place daily on an individual basis with each student to diminish the peer competitiveness which distorts the purpose of the program. See accompanying charts.

Resource

"Jogging Can Modify Disruptive Behaviors," J.I. Allen, Teaching Exceptional Children, Winter, 1980.

LEVEL: PIJS
PURPOSE: Format for keeping track of student's daily laps and/or duration.
PROCEDURE: List student name in left column. Recorder registers each lap with a tally. Circle daily total. Record duration in small box. Data may be transferred to student graph.
COMMENTS: Program successfully used in Dubuque Community School's Elementary Emotional Disabilities Classes

JOGGING CHART: LAPS/TIME

TEACHER: ______________________________ WEEK OF: ______________________________

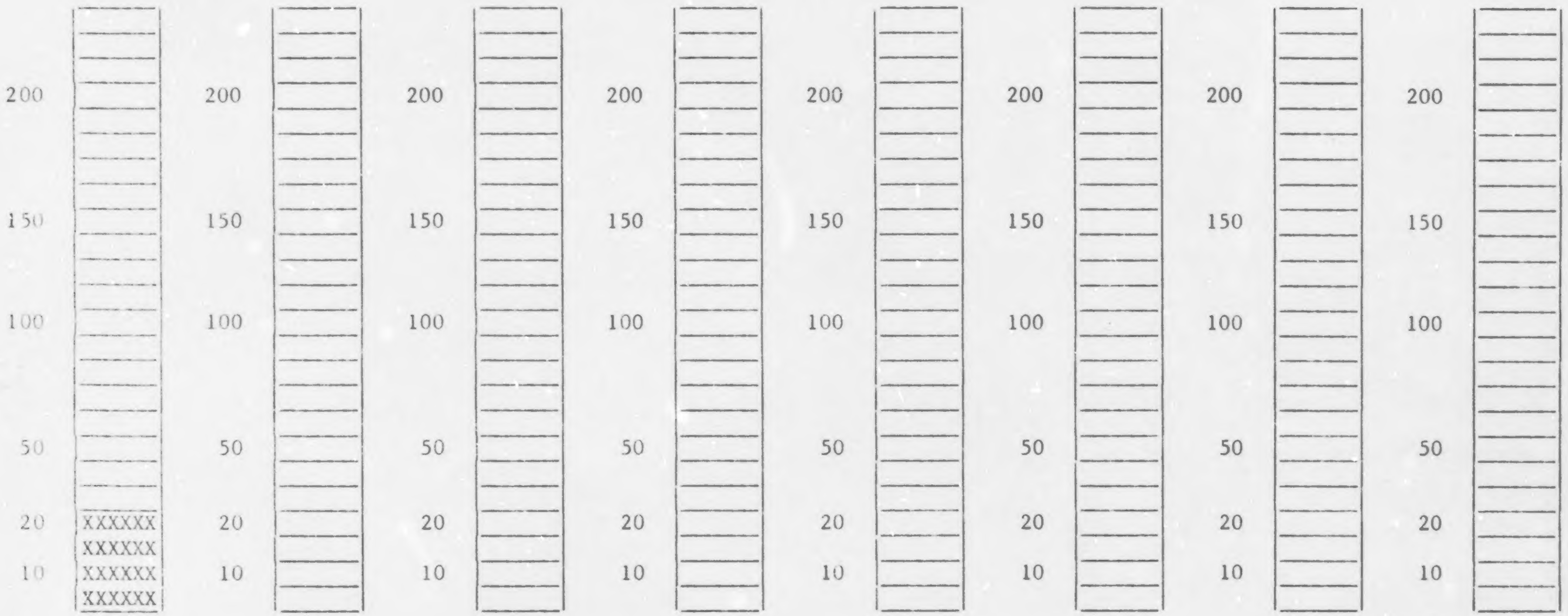
STUDENT	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY

DIRECTIONS: Record each lap with a tally; Total, circle daily total. Record duration time in small box.

LEVEL: PIJS
PURPOSE: Student Motivational Record
PROCEDURE: Student fills in bar graph daily to build picture of total accumulated laps.
COMMENTS: Can be converted to reflect total miles.

SAMPLE

JOGGING CHART: TOTAL LAPS

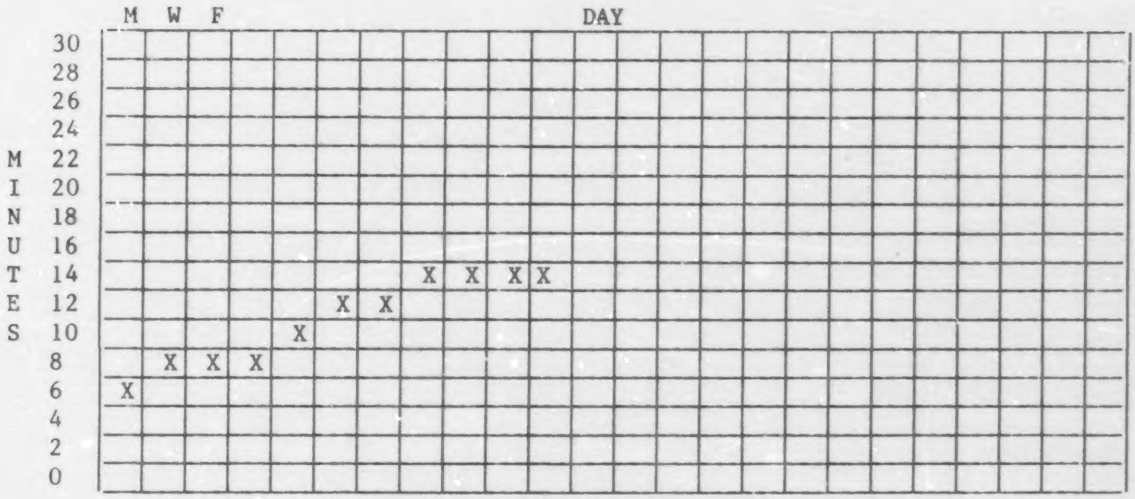


Student's Name: John

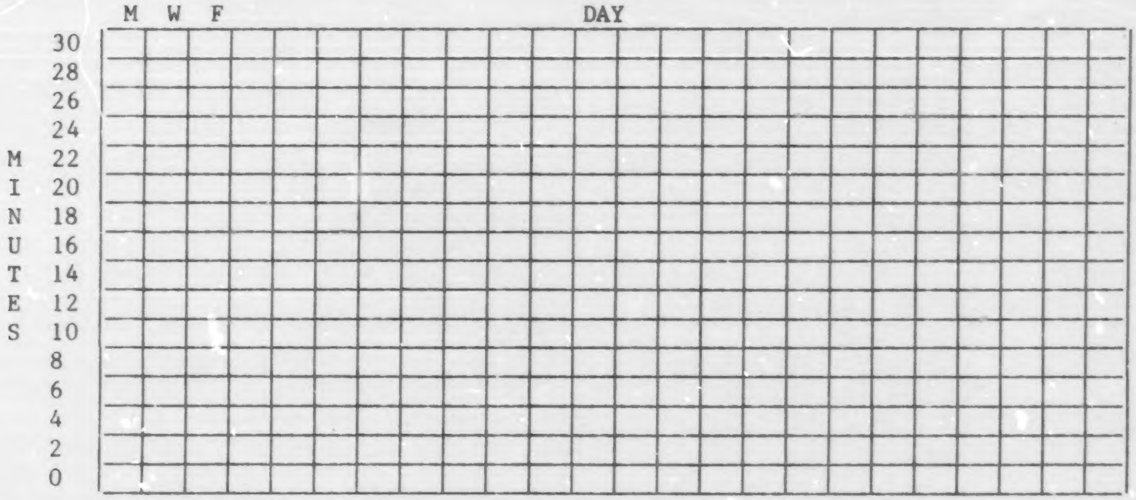
LEVEL: PIJS
PURPOSE: Student motivational record
PROCEDURE: Student graphs increased endurance daily
COMMENTS: Students compete with self

JOGGING CHART:

ENDURANCE



STUDENT'S NAME: John



STUDENT'S NAME: ____________________

AREA: Adjunctive Therapies
LEVELS: PIJS
SOURCE: Bulletin of Art Therapy, I, No. 2, 1961

Art Therapy

Elinor Ulman

It is always hard, sometimes impossible, to find the ideal name for any complex and subtle discipline. The title "art therapy" can easily be dismissed as inadequate or inaccurate, but I have not found a better one. Doubtful implications can only be resolved by careful, evolving definition. The purpose of this paper is an opening move in that direction.

"Art therapy" is currently used to designate widely varying practices in education, rehabilitation, and psychotherapy. Directors of special schools, psychiatrists, and even (in at least one case) the United States Civil Service Commission, refer to certain professional and volunteer workers as art therapists, even though no similar educational preparation, no set of qualifications, nor even any voluntary association binds these people together. Possibly the only thing common to *all* their activities is that the materials of the visual arts are used in some attempt to assist integration or reintegration of personality.

Yet competing and mutually exclusive definitions of art therapy have already been published by art therapists. At least one psychiatrist objecting to the looseness with which the term is used, has attempted to tighten up its meaning. Psychiatrists also have suggested various combinations of new names to designate special uses of art materials in psychotherapy.

Art therapy is the only one of the many activity therapies to attract this kind of attention from psychiatrists. This, I believe, implies something important about the peculiar nature and potency of our medium. There is a considerable body of literature describing the therapeutic use of patients' graphic and plastic projections in psychiatric practice. A number of these books and papers antedate the important publications of such art therapists as Naumburg and Kramer. Since art therapists have begun to publish, some psychiatrists imply that the term is being used to denote territory that belongs rather to themselves.

Direct attempts by art therapists to define art therapy demand first consideration. Whatever its deficiencies, our two-word title at least indicates the two main trends in existing practice and theory: some art therapists put the emphasis on art and some on therapy. The art people tend to exclude procedures where completion of the creative process is not a central goal, the therapy people often explain that preoccupation with artistic goals must be minimized in favor of a specialized form of psychotherapy. In the United States the second group—emphasis on therapy—found its spokesman earlier in the person of Margaret Naumburg. They are the ones who afford us the unique privilege of colliding squarely with psychiatrists who encourage their patients to communicate not only with words but with paint and clay. Among them also are the few who claim that art therapy can be an independent as well as an auxiliary technique in psychotherapy—a claim made, as far as I know, for no other activity therapy.

"SYMBOLIC SPEECH"

Naumburg's theory has undergone considerable evolution since the early 1940's; only a recent formulation will be quoted. Naumburg designates art therapy as analytically oriented, saying that it "bases its methods on releasing the unconscious by means of spontaneous art expression; it has its roots in the transference relation between patient and therapist,

From *Bulletin of Art Therapy,* I, No. 2.
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A member of the faculty of the Washington School of Psychiatry, Miss Ulman was assigned by the Department of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation to work in psychiatry at District of Columbia General Hospital.

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and on the encouragement of free association. It is closely allied to psychoanalytic therapy. . . . Treatment depends on the development of the transference relation and on a continuous effort to obtain the patient's own interpretation of his symbolic designs. . . . The images produced are a form of communication between patient and therapist; they constitute symbolic speech."

Naumburg cites the advantages of introducing painting and clay modeling into analytically oriented psychotherapy as follows: First, it permits direct expression of dreams, fantasies, and other inner experiences that occur as pictures rather than words. Second, pictured projections of unconscious material escape censorship more easily than do verbal expressions, so that the therapeutic process is speeded up. Third, the productions are durable and unchanging; their content cannot be erased by forgetting, and their authorship is hard to deny. Fourth the resolution of transference is made easier. "The autonomy of the patient is encouraged by his growing ability to contribute to the interpretation of his own creations. He gradually substitutes a narcissistic cathexis to his own art for his previous dependence on the therapist."[1]

An informal inquiry made in 1960 revealed that of 30 art therapists working in the United States and Canada a substantial majority believed that a therapeutic endeavor where spontaneous graphic and plastic projections serve primarily as "symbolic speech" was an important goal of their own practice. About half of these, like Naumburg, minimized any other special contribution of art activity to the treatment of the mentally ill. Independent private practice appears to be rare;[2] most of these art therapists work as members of psychiatric teams. Conditions vary widely and technique is modified in many ways. It is worth noting that Naumburg and others have applied similar methods both in individual treatment and in group therapy.

Naumburg's procedures overlap those described by psychiatrists who use painting and clay modeling in the course of psychoanalysis or analytically oriented therapy. These doctors share most of her convictions about the advantages gained by introducing these special materials and techniques, though in their reports I have found no mention of any change in the problem of handling transference. Max Stern and Ainslie Meares make it abundantly clear that they regard the interpretive use of patients' spontaneous productions in paint or clay as an integral part, but only a part, of their own basic therapeutic practice. W. L. Meijering assigns "expressive therapy," characterized as intensive and interpretive, exclusively to the "expert psychiatrist."

HEALING QUALITY OF THE CREATIVE PROCESS

The conflict here implied can be discussed better after considering another important theoretical formulation. Edith Kramer emphasizes art in defining the art therapist's special contribution to psychotherapy. In 1958 she became the second member of our nascent profession in the United States to publish at book length and to attempt rigorous definition.

The healing quality inherent in the creative process explains, in Kramer's view, the usefulness of art in therapy. "Art," she says, "is a means of widening the range of human experiences by creating equivalents for such experiences. It is an area wherein experiences can be chosen, varied, repeated at will. In the creative act, conflict is re-experienced, resolved and integrated. . . . The arts throughout history have helped man to reconcile the eternal conflict between the individual's instinctual urges and the demands of society. . . . The process of sublimation constitutes the best way to

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[1] Margaret Naumburg, "Art Therapy: Its Scope and Function," in *The Clinical Application of Projective Drawings* by Emanuel F. Hammer et al., Springfield, Ill., Charles C. Thomas, 1958.

[2] See Margaret Naumburg, *Psychoneurotic Art: Its Function in Psychotherapy;* Grune & Stratton, 1953.

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deal with a basic human dilemma, but the conflicting demands of superego and id cannot be permanently reconciled. . . . In the artistic product conflict is formed and contained but only partly neutralized. The artist's position epitomizes the precarious human situation: while his craft demands the greatest self-discipline and perseverance, he must maintain access to the primitive impulses and fantasies that constitute the raw material for his creative work.

"The art therapist makes creative experiences available to disturbed persons in the service of the total personality; he must use methods compatible with the inner laws of artistic creation. . . . His primary function is to assist the process of sublimation, an act of integration and synthesis which is performed by the ego, wherein the peculiar fusion between reality and fantasy, between the unconscious and the conscious, which we call art is reached."[3]

The complete artistic process thus exemplifies victory in the continuous struggle imposed on man by his basic nature. Therefore the arts have special value in the treatment of the mentally ill, but by themselves they cannot repair seriously damaged capacities for sublimation. No art therapist who places the emphasis on art considers art therapy a possible substitute for psychotherapy in the more conventional sense. Most agree with Kramer about a few salient qualities that distinguish the art therapist from the art teacher. In therapy the product is more clearly subordinated to the process than in teaching. Even more than the teacher must the therapist offer acceptance and respond to the special needs of every patient. His psychodynamic understanding shapes attitudes and actions in ways too subtle for brief recapitulation, enabling him to contribute both to the therapeutic program and to the understanding of each patient's total personality.

Of the 30 art therapists previously mentioned, a majority consider that providing adequate conditions for the creative process is an important part of their job, but only a small number appear to believe that it is their whole job. About twice as many aim only at the use of graphic and plastic productions as "symbolic speech." The largest single group—about half of those responding—believe in both these two main ways of using art. . . .

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[3] Edith Kramer, *Art Therapy in a Children's Community;* Springfield, Ill., Charles C. Thomas, 1958, pp. 6–23.

MUSIC THERAPY

RESOURCES/MATERIALS

Mainstreaming Movement Activities
by Gergia Stewart

Music Therapy
by E. Thayor Gaston, ed.

Guided Imagery
by Helen Bonny

Sea Gulls: Music for Rest and Relaxation
(Hap Palmer record)

Provided by: Sue Reese, Music Therapist

AREA: Adjunctive Therapies
LEVELS: PIJS
SOURCE: Music Therapy, E. Thayer Gaston, ed.

Music Therapy

Rudolph Dreikurs

Bobby, aged five, was aggressive—screaming, hitting, and kicking. In the first session, he ignored the instruments, screamed, kicked the doors and the walls. The therapist sat quietly, looking out the window. Bobby stole a glance at her, then intensified his volume. The therapist took a big bongo drum, played it softly at first, then overtook Bobby in volume and tempo. Bobby stopped, in a furious red-faced rage. The therapist said sweetly, "This time, louder and faster, Bobby." Bobby sat down on a chair, his head down, tense and depressed. After a silent pause, the therapist hummed a nursery rhyme. Its effect was quiet and calming. Bobby stood up, went to the farthest corner of the room, and, with his back to the therapist, swayed from leg to leg in perfect rhythm to her singing. She continued the same melody with the text, "Bobby is a fine big boy," over and over, with Bobby swaying in rhythm. Finally he turned around, smiled at the therapist and ran over to her. This had taken 50 minutes. They played another song on the phonograph, he jumping up and down with delight, and both singing the chorus together.

At the second session, Bobby again screamed at the sight of the therapist, this time in another room. He ran to the old room, screaming, and the therapist waited for 20 minutes before he came and joined her. He screamed and kicked, and tried to throw a record out of the window. The therapist used the same nursery song, *Mary Had a Little Lamb*, but this time playing it softly on a record-player. Bobby had to stop yelling in order to hear it, and then—spontaneously—sang the song with, "Bobby is a Fine Big Boy." Both continued singing and playing together, over and over again. The boy was delighted, and both added the line, "Bobby came down town." to the same tune. He looked happy, although from time to time he ran to the doors screaming and then hurried back.

During the following sessions, the therapist deliberately thwarted Bobby's compulsive expectations, by using the same room when he expected another and vice versa. She did the same with changing the music procedure. This upset his repetition compulsions. He shrieked each time in panic, "What's the matter?" and the therapist repeated his, "What's the matter?" as a recitative and then added, "Nothing," with her voice going up in a happy way. Then she chanted the old beloved chant, "Bobby is a fine big boy," and before long he joined in, "What's the matter—nothing—Bobby is a fine big boy," singing in a happy voice. Everything that Bobby accomplished was added to the chant, and he obviously looked happier and was more relaxed.

The first verbal communication occurred while beating the bongo drums. At first Bobby only repeated the therapist's last words, but gradually he started to express himself about food. They used new musical tunes to sing about foods, menu-planning, what he liked to eat and what went well together. At first, he was unable to make a choice. So they carried over to situations indicating possible choices. Since Bobby re-

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Rulolph Dreikurs, M. D., and Dorothy Brin Crocker, "Music Therapy with Psychotic Children," in E. Thayer Gaston, ed., *Music Therapy 1955* (Fifth Book of Proceedings), (Lawrence, Kansas: The National Association for Music Therapy, 1956), pp. 62–73.

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peated the last words of the therapist, she frustrated him by making the undesirable things the last words. Then Bobby shifted to the next to the last word, and gradually made a choice.

The chants became more elaborate. Folk music songs were used with words about the things that "big boys can do," such as going down town, going out to lunch, and going to school, and all the things that babies do and cannot do. (Bobby had a brother, one year old.) He did not use pronouns, starting sentences only with his own name, so the therapist chanted the proper pronouns to him; and, without realizing it, Bobby began to use them. His musical taste alternated between the primitive chanting and rather sophisticated music. He learned folk songs and songs from musicals. The music and rhythm were used to accompany drawing, cutting out, tying knots, and playing with blocks and clay. Bobby is now beginning to participate in a group.

Stephan, a 14-year-old boy, was unwilling to speak with anyone except his family. His mother was completely defeated. He had stopped talking to outsiders and was considered feebleminded. At the age of seven, he had for a short time begun speaking and singing in school; but, as suddenly as he had begun, he withdrew again. He was stubborn, lost his temper, did not play, never worked at anything. He had been under psychiatric care for years without any results. Soon after coming to the child guidance centers for help, Stephan and his mother were referred to music therapy.

When he came for the first session, there was background music of folk songs. He appeared limp, droopy, slow-moving, except for the excitement shown in his eyes. He carefully examined all the instruments, went from one to the other, touching them, but was unable to choose one. He finally came to the therapist and acted out that she should pick one. His excitement increased. She put another record on, and he sat back in the chair and listened intently.

The therapist structured the music on the basis of his passivity. She started with passive listening, avoided doing things for him, but praised and encouraged him. In the second session, she asked him whether he would like to draw while listening. He made faint "two-year-old" scrawls on the paper. The music was changed from sedative to exciting—to calypso. The therapist picked up castanets and started dancing. He still sat, but imitated her movements. The therapist got behind him and propelled him by using rhythm instruments on his rear. At last he started moving. They began with an autoharp, Stephan accompanying the therapist's singing. Then she stopped singing, saying that she didn't know his favorite. "Isn't that a pity!"

This is the outline of two months' activities, after which the boy's speech returned. While encouraging him through praise, the therapist frustrated him constantly by ignoring his unwillingness to talk. She addressed questions to him as if she had forgotten that he didn't speak. After two months, he played the rhythm instruments with better rhythms and much more energy. He showed preference for certain pieces, and for the first time made a sound on a kazoo. He immediately dropped the instrument as if surprised at his own courage. Later he blew several times on a harmonica and then dropped it also. He made musical portraits on the bongo drums, describing moods, places, animals. In this way, he and the therapist began conversations between themselves on the bongo drums. Using musical background, they started acting out situations: going to the psychiatrist, preparing to come down town alone, meeting new people, the therapist changing the drum beats in accordance with the words, Stephan responding with his own rhythm. They played duets together on the recorder and listened to modern music, about which the boy drew pictures which suddenly became rather mature.

The therapist continued to frustrate Stephan by sometimes "not understanding" pantomimes or drawings. He tried to scrawl

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his communications; but the therapist accelerated her tempo of speaking, so that writing became impossible, and he threw his pencil and paper to the floor in frustration. Once, after two months, he was unable to plug in the phonograph because he needed to stand on the chair on which the therapist was sitting. She "did not understand" when he first tried to pantomime and then to push her gently off the chair. Then he bent to the therapist's ear and began to grunt, until after about 20 minutes of grunting he said, "Get up," in a whisper. After this experience, he always wanted to go back to the practice room where this had occurred. He began to talk in whispers. Once the therapist played on the piano, acting out a scene of being trapped in a burning building. He had to shout for help. Then he was to be furious because somebody had hit him, and he had to yell, "Scram." In the beginning he whispered both times, but finally he yelled. From that time on they played—with music—all kinds of experiences, taking a trip on the bus, buying tickets, buying various things. He began to sing louder and louder, and talked audibly, with his favorite music background, about his dreams, his daydreams, his loneliness and his fears. He felt that no one at school liked him because he was "dumb." He was ashamed of his puny, weak body.

Finally, Stephan was introduced into a group of younger psychotic children, where he began to direct them and to teach them in their music therapy activities. In school he began to function on a higher level.

EVALUATION OF THE THERAPEUTIC ACTIVITIES

It is impossible, because of limited space, to analyze and evaluate the various activities of the music therapist. Definite psychological principles underlie each step. Perhaps most important is the utilization of the pressure of the situation, a technique which the writer calls "natural consequences." Against the expectation of those who may consider any pressure on such children to be harmful, the children responded well to such situational pressures, probably because of the absence of verbal expressions. This distinction between verbal pressure and natural consequences is exceedingly important in the training of all children, but even more needed in dealing with psychotic children.

The corrective influence of reality comes almost automatically into play if the therapist resists passively the child's mistaken approaches. In order to do so, she must be able to recognize his goals and know how to cope with them. The four goals which the writer has described as underlying the disturbing actions of a child are: (1) the demand for undue attention and service; (2) the power struggle to defeat or overpower the adult; (3) the desire to hurt, as revenge for actual or imagined abuse; and (4) the flaunting of actual or assumed deficiencies to avoid another failure. These four goals are found in psychotic, as well as in other children. They can be recognized in the cases presented here.

The necessary passive resistance of the therapist naturally implies her ability to react to the child's suspicion, hostility or aggression, with interest, understanding, and lack of condemnation or censorship, but without yielding. In this way, the therapist exposes the child to new experiences in human relationships, conducive to better relationships with all.

Significant in some of the approaches described, was the technique of accepting the child's faulty behavior patterns as the basis for progress, entering into his private logic, swinging in tune with his actions, thoughts and feelings, and eventually redirecting them.

These cases are only samples of the work done by the music therapists working with the writer's patients. This work brought results where other approaches had failed. It seems that the pleasant experience with music, often merely in the background, stimulates participation, permits an increase in the child's attention span, and raises his frustration level. External and internal tensions disappear, as reality becomes more pleasant and less threatening. The demands for participation are so subtle that they are not resented or defied.

In this sense, music therapy may in many cases be the method of choice, the only method which has proved its efficacy in reaching certain children. Most important is the fact that this can be achieved with a few sessions a week, so that institutionalization no longer appears mandatory, unless the child is too destructive to remain at home. But, even with such aggressive children, it is often possible, through firmness and stimulation by music therapy, to achieve sufficient improvement so that the child can continue in his natural setting.

Music therapy is still relatively young. Many new approaches and techniques will probably evolve in the process of exploration, experimentation and scientific evaluation of the results. The experiences gathered in working with the most difficult cases will undoubtedly provide new insight into the corrective potential of music in general.

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AREA: Self-Change Techniques
LEVELS: PIJS

SOURCE: Iowa Perspective, May, 1979

IOWA PERSPECTIVE

News of Programs for Emotionally Disabled and Chronically Disruptive Students

Iowa Department of Public Instruction

May, 1979

Self-Control Strategies for Emotionally Disabled Students

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by Landis Fick
Child Psychiatry
University of Iowa

Classroom management for behaviorally or emotionally disabled (E.D.) children traditionally has included some method of behavior modification. Point systems or token economies are often the backbone of behavior control for many teachers or helpers of these children. A teacher's daily duties often include dispensing or taking away points or tokens on various schedules and ratios of application. The efficacy of many behavior modification systems has been proven in clinical settings, as well as in the public schools. Regardless of the type of system used, whether for total classroom control or individual behavior management, the controlling agent has customarily been someone other than the child. The teacher or teacher aide in most special education classrooms has been the managing agent for behavior control. This fact has significant implications when considering mainstreaming students.

Children in classes which have behavioral goals as well as academic objectives are frequently required to meet a standard of behavior frequency or duration and maintain that standard for a specified period of time in order to be integrated into one or more regular classes. There are problems which arise from this method of integration. First, the behavior standard or criteria met for integration is often extrinsically enforced. This is evident even during the "weaning" process off of token economies. For example, although there is a shift from materialistic to social reinforcers and the reinforcement schedule is lengthened, the student continually relies on external behavior control and is given little opportunity to become the behavior manager.

In This Issue:

"Self-Control Strategies for Emotionally Disabled Students" by Landis Fick

"Physical Education at Orchard Place, A Residential Treatment Center for Emotionally Disabled Children" by Marcia Olson

These systems of contingency management, regardless of whether the consequences are punishment or reinforcement, may only be effective when under the direct supervision of the managing person or in the environment where the consequence is applied. A child in an integrated class who exhibits an appropriate behavior that would merit attention by the special teacher in a special class is less likely to repeat that behavior in other situations or for other people because that behavior could easily go unnoticed.

Secondly, the problem with many contingency based management programs in special classes is that behavior is often shaped to a standard set by a classroom environment which in few ways resembles a less restrictive classroom atmosphere. It is hardly realistic to expect a child to maintain a behavior in a setting that does not have the same behavioral demands as that of a regular classroom. Take for instance the child whose behavior is shaped by the E.D. teacher to conform with the rules posted inside the study carrel. The behaviors considered appropriate in that situation hardly satisfy the demand of attending an open classroom with rows of desks and group work tables. The integrated classroom inflicts many more demands for self-control on the E.D. child than do most special education classrooms.

It is the purpose of this article to provide the teacher or aide who implements behavioral interventions with some alternatives to traditional externally managed behavior modification techniques. Although several self-control models can be used, the techniques described herein will only apply to those which have behavioral implications. Additionally, some techniques which involve rearranging the physical classroom environment to promote self-control will briefly be discussed. Self-control techniques which have cognitive-behavioral or psychoeducational definitions will not be discussed. Techniques which fall under these definitions, such as self-instruction training (Meichenbaum & Goodman, 1971) which have been adapted for special classroom use (Marshall, 1977), should not be overlooked. They have been proven effective in controlling both impulsive and disruptive behaviors (Camp, et. al., 1977).

It is also the purpose of this article to define the teacher's role in a self-control oriented program. Perhaps new thinking

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will be generated on how to make the special classroom a place in which behaviors needed to survive in a less restrictive environment are stressed, for sitting in a classroom with many distractions demands the most self-control on the part of the E.D. student.

If a child is taught self-control over educationally incompatible behaviors, he or she will need less behavioral involvement from the outside. This means the student will have a better chance to be successfully mainstreamed. It also suggests the student will have higher self-esteem and less need to depend on others for behavior control (Schneider & Robin, 1973).

For definition purposes, any child who exhibits self-control is capable of doing any one or combination of the following:

a) devise and implement a procedure to change his or her behavior with minimal involvement from others (Kurtz, Neisworth, 1976)
b) alter the external environment as well as his or her internal environment to promote meaningful change (Thoresen & Mahoney, 1974)

Perhaps the simplest definition was proposed by Goldfried and Merbaum (1973): a person who exhibits self-control is one who is the principle agent for regulating his or her own behavior.

With these definitions in mind, a teacher can develop a working model. Although several models of behavioral self-control have been proposed (e.g. Glynn, Thomas, Shee, 1973; Kazdin, 1975; Kahn, Leibowitz, 1977, Kanfer, 1975), the techniques discussed here will be classified in four separate, but interrelated groups: a) self-assessment, b) self-observation, c) self-reinforcement, and d) self-control over the stimulus situation.

Self-Assessment

Self-assessment is a process in which individuals examine their own behavior and determine whether or not they have performed a given behavior (Glynn, Thomas, Shee, 1973). With this process, children also determine what behavior or behaviors they would like to increase and which they choose to decrease. With the guidance of the teacher, individuals also set the criteria for behavior change.

Self-Observation

Self-observation is the process in which individuals observe the frequency or duration of occurrence of their specified behavior or behaviors and record, tally, and/or chart them.

Self-Reinforcement

Self-reinforcement is the process in which individuals determine the nature, amount, and frequency of reinforcement they shall receive contingent on performing specified behaviors. Self-reinforcement also includes the act of self-administrating those reinforcers contingent on performing the specified behavior or behaviors (Glynn et. al., 1973).

Self-Control Over the Stimulus Situation

Self-control over the stimulus situation is the process in which individuals realize that their behavior is associated with various environmental stimuli (e.g. situations, people, or events) and they modify their surroundings in order to behave in the way they desire (Kazdin, 1975). Although this process does not have the same behavioral implications as the other three elements (e.g. data collection), it does suggest rearrangement of the physical classroom. Therefore, it will be briefly discussed.

Student Success Variables

The student's success with a self-control program may very well depend on the following criteria. The teacher should carefully examine each question when considering such a program for an individual student.

1. Does the child have sufficient motivation to change his or her behaviors into those which are more compatible with the classroom environment?
2. Does the child have an external locus of control? In other words, does the child feel that what he or she does is largely dependent on personal efforts or on external factors which he or she feels are beyond control?
3. Does the child have the necessary cognitive skills to use self-control strategies? Many self-control skills need to be taught by the helping person. The child must be able to grasp several basic behavioral principles.
4. Is the child under direct control of the environment? (e.g. Is the student under heavy medication which may reduce the efficacy of self-control strategies? Does the child spend most of his or her time in an isolated environment where self-control strategies related to socially acceptable behaviors are difficult to use?)
5. Is there a chain of behaviors occurring in which early observable antecedents can be altered in order to change the course of events? In other words, can the child identify a stimulus situation (e.g. playing King of the Hill) which leads to an undesirable behavior (e.g. purposely hurting someone)?
6. Has the child demonstrated success under an externally controlled contingency management system? Research studies indicate that self-control strategies used in classrooms may be more successful and effective longer if they are preceded by a successful externally controlled contingency management system (Workman & Hector, 1978).

Role of the Teacher

It is generally accepted that any method, teaching technique or curricular material depends on teacher effectiveness for student success. This is equally important with self-control strategies. The teacher who institutes a self-control program in the classroom has several functions to perform.

1. When initially instituting a self-control program the teacher must be a helper, instigator, and motivator. The teacher must demonstrate to the students that how they behave and what they do has an effect on their environment. He or she must offer support to students as they depend more and more on newly developed skills and techniques. The teacher must also help children define behaviors, tally behaviors with the children for reliability purposes, and offer praise for performing self-control strategies.
2. The teacher must also arrange the physical classroom environment to create an atmosphere in which behaviors realistic with those in a less-restrictive environment are emphasized. Many behaviors, such as sitting and attending in a group, waiting for a turn, and getting along with peers during less-structured activities, are expected of children in mainstreamed classrooms. Only by creating realistic classroom situations in the E.D. classroom, such as

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working at group tables, sitting and listening to stories, or lining up at the door, can children practice newly developed self-control skills that will ease their transition into other classes. This does not mean special education teachers are to replace all study carrels with group tables, etc. It does mean, however, that a generous amount of the E.D. students' school time should be spent in situations that give them practice with self-control skills over behaviors that will be required in less-restrictive classes.

3. The teacher who institutes a self-control program in the class must also be a model of self-control and let the children observe his or her own self-reinforcement. (e.g. Let the children hear statements such as, "Boy, I did a good job of not blowing up at you two boys for fighting. I think I'll reward myself with a Twinkie at lunch time.") The teacher can also let the children observe the tallying or charting of his or her own behavior. (e.g. The teacher can display a chart on which is a record of the teacher's behaviors, such as daily exercise, weight loss, cups of coffee, or the frequency of one-to-one attention with the students.) The opportunities for a teacher to be a model of self-control are endless. It is an area in which the teacher can put creativity to work.
4. Finally, the teacher must develop new patterns of thinking when instituting a self-control program in the class. Rather than continually questioning, "What can I do to change the children's behavior?" the teacher should ask, "What are these children capable of doing for themselves?"

Self-Control Strategies

The following classroom strategies will not be prescribed in relation to specific behaviors. Rather, they are provided as alternatives to externally controlled techniques which have been customarily used in special education classrooms. They are presented with this purpose in mind: if by giving the E.D. student some new, motivating tools so that he or she becomes the behavior change agent, the child may be one step closer to integration.

Self-Assessment Strategies

Many behaviors that are exhibited by a student are automatic in nature and often occur without the student actually being aware of them. The following strategies will help the child assess those behaviors in relationship to their occurrence, frequency and duration.

Videotape Feedback

Since many school districts now have access to V.T.R. equipment, it is possible to put it to use in the E.D. classroom. A teacher can candidly or overtly tape a classroom activity or group session. In a group or with an individual the tape can then be played back for discussion and assessment purposes. The following questions may be asked: Is there anything happening here that you did not know you were doing? What would you like to see yourself do more or less of? What do you see yourself doing that you are proud of or not proud of? How could you have avoided doing that (specific behavior)?

During V.T.R. feedback, the teacher and student can also analyze what variables restrict the student from performing certain desirable behaviors. These may be factors in the environment which distract the student, i.e. noise from the hall, an open window, another student's behavior, teasing or name calling. It is also important for the teacher to clearly

assessing the appropriateness of the viewed behaviors in the classroom.

Time Cards

On a 5" x 7" card, a child can write down everything he or she does in a specified time period. The teacher can generate enthusiasm by setting up specific unstructured blocks of time (e.g. 5 or 10 minutes) so the students can play "spy". The students then write down everything they say or do and everything that is said or done to them. More capable students may find it beneficial to note specific times of behavior occurrence. Following the "spy" game a group or individual discussion can be held, similar to the format used with the V.T.R. equipment. Besides helping children assess their behavior, self-assessment also gives them a new sense of awareness in their own time and space.

Self-Monitoring Strategies

As previously stated, self-monitoring involves the students' observation and recording of the frequency or duration of their own behavior. This process requires them to possess many new skills. Therefore, at first they may not be reliable to self-record accurately. With this in mind, the teacher who engages students in a self-monitoring program will need to provide them with training, practice and periodic checks for reliability purposes.

Practice and Reliability Checks

To help the students practice, the teacher may wish to again use the V.T.R. equipment. Students can count the frequency of their own or other's behavior as it occurs on the T.V. screen. Students can also practice on their peers' or teacher's behavior. To become more reliable, children may need to learn how to define a behavior. Observing when a behavior starts and stops may be beneficial. The teacher may also wish to observe and tally or time behaviors along with the students for comparison checks of behavior frequencies and duration.

Many students find counting and recoding their own behavior fun and motivating in itself. Self-monitoring, therefore, may have a positive effect on behavior change (Thoresen & Mahoney, 1974; Broden, Hall & Mitts, 1971). It is difficult to assess why this is so, but it may be because the students have physical evidence of their change in behavior, or it may stem from the novelty of using the technique or process for tallying.

Timing and Tallying Tools and Tricks

Self-monitoring is another self-control process in which the teacher may be innovative. The following materials and methods may be used with students to make self-monitoring fun and reinforcing in itself.

Wrist golf stroke counters, kitchen timers, stop watches and stop clocks are available from commercial sources and can be purchased at a relatively low cost. They have commonly been used by teachers of E.D. students, but under the self-monitoring process they are used by the students themselves.

Other self-tallying techniques which appeal to youngsters and may be incorporated into a self-monitoring process are less expensive. A simple paper punch and 3" x 5" card with numbers printed around the edge is a simple, motivating

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simply punch a number as they observe themselves performing a specified behavior. In the center of the card a simple picture of the specified behavior, not unlike cartoons (Kunzelmann, 1970), can be drawn by the children.

Students also enjoy rubber stamps for recording purposes. As any adult will attest, rubber stamps (especially those inscribed "paid") are fun to use. A large piece of paper with gridded squares will give the stamps organization and help the students observe their behavioral progress.

Pages from coloring books, geometric picture designs, or simple gridded sheets of paper may also be used as a monitoring strategy. Students may simply color in a space each time a specified behavior occurs.

A strip of masking tape wrapped around a student's wrist and marked with a small felt-tip pen is also useful. A self-monitoring technique such as this is easy for the student to use candidly and can be used in situations where the student is active.

Posters or colorful magazine pictures may also be used for purposes of self-recording. The teacher can cut them into smaller squares and students can paste them on oaktag each time a specified behavior takes place. Cut-up posters also provide a finished product and therefore make it additionally motivating for students.

These self-monitoring techniques should be transferred to a graph or chart for data collection purposes. It is also beneficial to display these graphs in the classroom as another motivating factor.

Goodlet and Goodlet (1969) found self-monitoring to be most effective when coupled with self-reinforcement strategies.

Self-Reinforcement Strategies

Self-reinforcement, as previously stated, includes both choosing the nature, amount, and frequency of reinforcement and self-dispensing the reinforcers contingent on performance of a specified behavior. In simple terms, this means the teacher allows students to determine what they wish to do, or have, when they reach a criteria level and then apply that reinforcer to themselves. Some hints for the teacher are:

1. Provide a number of reasonable and different reinforcers. Since most special education teachers are familiar with lists and "menus" of reinforcers, including free-time activities and tangibles, these items will not be discussed. Let students then choose from the various reinforcers rather than choosing one for them and risking the chance they will not find it reinforcing.
2. Observe the students and point out to them the activities they appear to enjoy. Those activities may be possible reinforcers.
3. Provide a reinforcement area where students are able to attain reinforcement with minimal involvement from others. A free time area with various activities set up or a classroom store with tangibles on display have often been effective in special classes. Another hint is to provide students with a "taking five" sign they can hang on their desks or chairs when they acquire free time. This lets the teacher know what the students are doing and when they have reached a certain criteria level. It also lets students reinforce themselves without the teacher's involvement.

Studies indicate that self-reinforcement strategies such as letting students choose their own reinforcers and applying those reinforcers to themselves are at least as effective as externally administered reinforcement with disruptive behavior (Goodlet & Goodlet, 1969) and on-task behavior (Glynn, 1970).

Self-Control Over the Stimulus Situation Strategies - Pointing out the Stimulus Situation

When initially teaching a child self-control over a stimulus situation, it may be necessary to point out that situation to the child. Take for example a student who gets easily distracted by a certain peer when doing independent work at a group table. When this occurs, the student quits working and often gets in trouble. By telling the student that he or she only misbehaves when sitting next to that peer, the teacher has helped the student identify the stimulus situation.

Providing the Opportunity for Positive Change

After a stimulus situation has been pointed out to the student, the teacher must then provide an opportunity for that child to change his or her behavior. When a student cannot work when seated next to a certain peer, the teacher can let that student sit in a less distractable seat or area of the room. As the student is now able to identify the stimulus situation (sitting next to the peer) and is provided with the opportunity to change, that student has become the behavior manager.

Rearranging the Environment

It is up to the teacher to arrange the physical classroom environment to meet the students' needs. In other words, by providing areas in the classroom where a child can study only when distractions become overwhelming or by providing an area in the room where the "explosive" student can cool off, the teacher is helping the student practice self-control.

Once a student is able to identify inappropriate behaviors with certain stimuli situations and choose an acceptable alternative without the teacher's help, the student is exhibiting self-control. Although no research has demonstrated its effectiveness, it seems likely that by combining self-control over the stimulus situation with other self-control techniques, the efficacy of this self-control strategy will be even greater.

Conclusion

Several self-control strategies for use in classrooms for emotionally disabled students have been discussed. There are numerous techniques that can be used by teachers and students to make self-management fun and motivating. Since students' self-control can involve using any one or a combination of strategies, the possibilities for their use are endless.

The major goal for helpers of E.D. students is to eventually mainstream those students into less restrictive school environments. Since many of those integrated classrooms require and expect the students to control their behavior, it seems logical to include short-term objectives which imply that students are the managers of their own behavior. Too often self-control is only indicated in long-term objectives. They are usually the so-called "internalization" criteria associated with the "weaning" process from externally controlled management systems. Many E.D. students never reach that level. Transferring externally controlled management systems to self-control management systems as an alternative to traditional "weaning" processes, and helping students shape their behavior in a realistic classroom setting may very well be the keys which unlock the door to the mainstream of school for the emotionally disabled.

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AREA: Self-Change Techniques
LEVELS: PIJS
SOURCE: TEACHING CHILDREN SELF-CONTROL IN THE CLASSROOM by Stanley Fagen, Nicholas Long and Donald Stevens

TEACHING SELF-CONTROL

I. BASIC CONCEPTS.

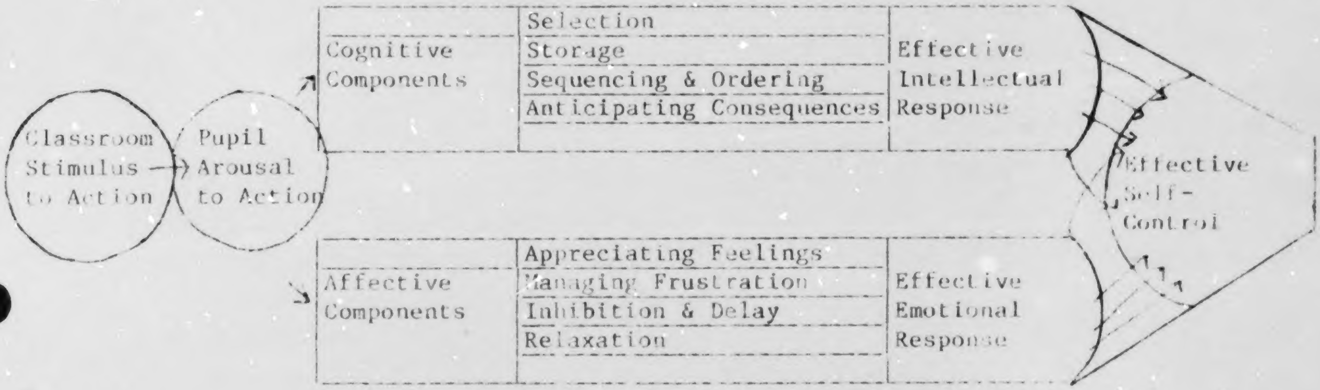
A. Definition of Self-Control - capacity to flexibly and realistically direct and regulate personal action (behavior) in a given situation.

B. Skill Components of Self-Control:

1. Selection - ability to perceive incoming information accurately.
2. Storage - ability to retain the information received.
3. Sequencing and Ordering - ability to organize actions on a basis of a planned order.
4. Anticipating Consequences - ability to relate actions to expected outcomes.
5. Appreciating Feelings - ability to identify and constructively use affective experience.
6. Managing Frustration - ability to cope with external obstacles that produce stress.
7. Inhibition and Delay - ability to postpone or restrain action tendencies.
8. Relaxation - ability to reduce internal tension.

II. Figure 1. Capacity for self-control as an integration of skill-clusters.

Figure 1 depicts the integration of the eight skill-clusters into a total capacity for self-control in the classroom.


Classroom Stimulus to Action
Pupil Arousal to Action
Cognitive Components
Selection
Storage
Sequencing & Ordering
Anticipating Consequences
Effective Intellectual Response
Affective Components
Appreciating Feelings
Managing Frustration
Inhibition & Delay
Relaxation
Effective Emotional Response
Effective Self-Control

THE SELF-CONTROL CURRICULUM

Curriculum Area	Curriculum Unit
SELECTION	1. Focusing & Concentration
	2. Figure-Ground Discrimination
	3. Mastering Distractions
	4. Processing Complex Patterns
STORAGE	1. Visual Memory
	2. Auditory Memory
SEQUENCING & ORDERING	1. Time Orientation
	2. Auditory-Visual Sequencing
	3. Sequential Planning
ANTICIPATING CONSEQUENCES	1. Developing Alternatives
	2. Evaluating Consequences
APPRECIATING FEELINGS	1. Identifying Feelings
	2. Developing Positive Feelings
	3. Managing Feelings
	4. Reinterpreting Feeling Events
MANAGING FRUSTRATION	1. Accepting Feelings of Frustration
	2. Building Coping Resources
	3. Tolerating Frustration
INHIBITION AND DELAY	1. Controlling Action
	2. Developing Part-Goals
RELAXATION	1. Body Relaxation
	2. Thought Relaxation
	3. Movement Relaxation

AREA: Self-Change Techniques
LEVELS: PIJS
SOURCE: Dr. Stanley Fagen, Montgomery County Public Schools, Rockville, Maryland

SHORT-TERM OBJECTIVES: PERFORMANCE OBJECTIVES FOR SELF-CONTROL

Obj. A. Will demonstrate skills in attending and accurately perceiving external stimuli. (Selection).

1. Will demonstrate ability to focus attention on a specific task.
2. Will select relevant from irrelevant parts of a stimulus arrangement.
3. Will demonstrate ability to maintain concentration despite distracting stimuli.
4. Will demonstrate ability to attend to complex stimulus patterns.

Obj. B. Will demonstrate skills in remembering information. (Storage).

1. Will demonstrate ability to remember and reconstruct visual material.
2. Will demonstrate ability to remember and reconstruct auditory material.

Obj. C. Will demonstrate skills in organizing actions in an appropriate sequence. (Sequencing and Ordering).

1. Will accurately place things and events into time and space relationships.
2. Will accurately arrange or reproduce a sequence of auditory or visual stimuli.
3. Will demonstrate ability to carry out the parts of a total sequence.

Obj. D. Will demonstrate skills in relating actions to expected outcomes. (Anticipating Consequences).

1. Will verbalize and demonstrate alternative ways to reach goals.
2. Will evaluate choices of action in terms of their probable outcome.
3. Will identify the relationship between own actions and resultant consequences.

Obj. E. Will demonstrate skills in identifying and constructively using emotions. (Appreciating Feelings).

1. Will recognize and attach appropriate words to others' feelings.
2. Will recognize and attach appropriate words to own feelings.
3. Will accept the normalcy of own feelings without self-blame or denial.
4. Will identify and express positive feelings towards self.
5. Will identify and express positive feelings towards others.
6. Will substitute verbal or ideational responses for emotional outbursts or impulsive actions.
7. Will identify potentially positive elements in an emotionally disappointing event.

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Obj. F. Will demonstrate skills in coping with external obstacles that produce stress. (Managing Frustration).

1. Will identify and accept feelings of frustration as normal events.
2. Will demonstrate acceptable alternatives for coping effectively with frustration.
3. Will demonstrate capacity to endure or persevere under stress.

Obj. G. Will demonstrate skills in postponing or restraining own action. (Inhibition and Delay).

1. Will demonstrate ability to delay or inhibit impulses toward immediate expression.
2. Will verbalize and demonstrate an understanding that partial success is necessary for achieving future goals.

Obj. H. Will demonstrate skills in relaxing to reduce body and mental tension. (Relaxation).

1. Will use techniques for achieving body relaxation.
2. Will use techniques for achieving thought relaxation.
3. Will use techniques for achieving movement relaxation.

(Reference: Fagen, Stanley, Long, Nicholas, and Stevens, Donald. Teaching Children Self-Control: Preventing Emotional and Learning Problems in the Elementary Schools. Columbus, Ohio: Charles Merrill, 1975)

AREA: Self-Change Techniques
LEVEL: PIJS
SOURCE: TEACHING CHILDREN SELF-CONTROL IN THE CLASSROOM

TEACHER CHECKLIST FOR HELPING CHILDREN DEVELOP SELF-CONTROL SKILLS

To what extent are you helping your children to:

Rarely	Sometimes	Often	
			Pay attention to important parts of a task or instruction (Selection)
			Remember important parts of a task or instruction (Storage)
			Organize and orient selves for completion of work (Sequence and Order)
			Anticipate consequences of own behavior (Anticipate Consequences)
			Understand and appreciate own feelings and express through acceptable words and behavior (Appreciate Feelings)
			Accept and recover from frustration in classroom (Manage Frustration)
			Hold actions for appropriate times (Inhibit and Delay)
			Reduce internal tension and pressures (Relaxation)

STUDENT RATING OF SELF-CONTROL	☺ I CAN DO IT VERY WELL	? 😐 OK	☹ I NEED TO IMPROVE
1. △ I can pay attention to the teacher.			
2. □ I can remember what I am supposed to do.			
3. ○ I can finish my work after I understand.			
4. ✕ I can guess what will happen if I start trouble.			
5. ∿ I can talk about different feelings that I have.			
6. ⁘ When I get upset and can't do what I want, I can think of ways to make things better.			
7. ⏢ I can stop myself from doing things that I know are wrong.			
8. ⬭ I can relax when things are going wrong.			

SELF-CONTROL BEHAVIOR INVENTORY (SCBI)

Name of Pupil ____________________
School ____________________
Grade ____________________

Teacher ____________________
Date ____________________

SAMPLE

	A Rarely Does 0	B Sometimes Does 1	C Usually Does 2	D Almost Always Does 3
1. Pays attention to teacher directions or instructions.				
2. Remembers teacher's directions or instructions.				
3. Organizes self to perform assignments.				
4. Anticipates the consequences of own behavior.				
5. Manages external frustration while working on an assignment.				
6. Can delay actions even when excited.				
7. Expresses feelings through acceptable words and behavior.				
8. Thinks positively about self.				
Column Score				

Scoring Values:
Rarely Does = 0 points
Sometimes Does = 1 point
Usually Does = 2 points
Almost Always Does = 3 points

*TOTAL SCBI SCORE = ____________________

1971 Revised
Psychoeducational Resources, Inc.
3565 Brandywine Street N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20008

AREA: Self-Change Techniques
LEVELS: PIJS
SOURCE: Al Marshall, Child Psychiatry, University of Iowa

SELF-INSTRUCTION TRAINING

Self-instruction training is based on the idea that many impulsive children have not adequately gone through the developmental stages of talking through their actions. Therefore, they have not learned to internalize the self-instruction process or the "sequence of steps" in organizing the completion of a task or project. Self-instruction training actually takes the child through that thought organization process. The child learns a sequence of self-instruction to help lead him through that process.

The procedure itself can be used in many different situations. The particular relevance of it is that through practice, the child learns to geralize that organizational process to his actions. It can be used in helping children to use equipment such as typewriters, tape recorders, film strips, etc., in an organized and therefore non-frustrating manner.

The method can be generalized to many academic tasks, particularly in certain math areas which require a definite sequence to problem solution. An example would be adding two digits with regrouping so that the child has to learn to remind himself where to start.

It has also been effectively used in games such as Concentration where thinking through the act before acting is very necessary.

The teacher should decide which situations seem pertinent to a particular child's learning. It is important that the child be trained in different situations that require sequential thinking so that he learns to generalize the training and use it effectively in his own life.

The components of this system are these:

A. What is the task I am to do?

  1. What am I supposed to do?
  2. Strategies for how to do it, or steps in completing that task.
  3. Error corrections procedures -- such as, "if I do this mistake, I will correct it by ______________." (This is a very important element because there is significant evidence that impulsive children tend to make a series of mistakes after initially making a mistake. It is most important that the child practice to himself the path out of a string of errors.)

  4. Reinforcement of self -- both during the task and at the end of the task. (The trainer should actually give the child words to use in reinforcement so that the child gets used to how to give himself a pat on the back.)

The child learns to verbalize to himself:

1. What am I supposed to do?

2. What are the possible difficulties in this task that may get me into trouble?
3. How do I correct a particular mistake in case I make it?
4. What are the strategies for approaching this situation? Out of the methods I might choose, what is the best method for solving this situation?

B. The method that the trainer should use is the following:

1. The trainer can use a sort of Socratic Dialogue technique in talking the possibilities through with the child. Before actually beginning the verbalizing and modeling procedure the child will have had a chance with directed questions from the trainer to "think through" the sequence of steps. The trainer then verbalizes the steps out loud and models the entire task for the child. The trainer says the words he is going to use in each of the steps outlined above and actually words through the task physically and out loud.
2. The trainer then verbalizes and the child performs the task.
3. The child verbalizes aloud and the child performs the task.
4. The child learns to whisper the sequence of directions to himself and perform the task.
5. The child covertly talks to himself while performing the task.

This is a natural developmental sequence that is followed. It may not always be necessary to go through all of the steps after the child has been accustomed to it, but it is essential that the child learn to verbalize to himself and then internalize that sequence of self-directions.

The most important elements are:

A. To teach self-reinforcement--actually giving the child words that he can use.

B. To teach error corrections so that the child does not make a string of mistakes.

C. To teach the child to verbalize to himself and then to covertly talk himself through a task.

TRAINING CHILDREN TO TALK TO THEMSELVES

(self-instruction training)

I. Components

  A. What

    1. task (what is to be done)

    2. strategies (how to do it)

    3. error correction procedures

    4. reinforcement of self (during and at end)

  B. Why

    1. comprehension deficiency

    2. production deficiency

    3. mediation deficiency

II. How to

  A.

    1. trainer verbalizes and models

    2. trainer verbalizes, child performs

    3. child verbalizes, child performs

    4. child whispers, child performs

    5. child talks to himself (covert), child performs

  B. Socratic dialogue can be useful in training

IMPORTANT

teach self-reinforcement

error correction

verbalization

REFERENCES:

Barkley, Russell, Anne Copeland and Carol Sevage, "A Self-Control Classroom for Hyperactive Children," Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders, Vol, 10, No. 1, 1980.

Bornstein, Philip H. and Randal P. Quevillon, "The Effects of a Self-Instructional Package on Overactive Preschool Boys," Journal of Applied Behavioral Analysis, Vol. 9, No. 2, 1976, p. 179-188.

Marshall, Al, "Introduction and Application of Self-Instruction Training."

Self-Instruction Training Summary

Step 1. Teacher models the task while talking aloud.

Step 2. Student performs task while the teacher instructs aloud.

Step 3. Student performs task talking aloud to himself.

Step 4. Student performs task while whispering to himself.

Step 5. Student performs task silently "talking to himself" (covert self-instruction).

Step 6. Student gives himself reinforcement.

Self-Instruction Training

Student: ____

Date Initiated: ____

TASK:

VERBAL DIRECTIONS:

VERBAL REWARD:

AREA: Self-Change Techniques
LEVELS: PIJS
SOURCE: Ellen McGinnis, AEA 10

Self-Monitoring Training (Suggested 30-minute work period)

A. In a group or individually the students will decide upon behaviors on which to work (e.g. stay in seat, working, not bothering others, raising hand).

B. Set timer (or tape recorder) at random intervals of ______________ to ______________ minutes; when the timer rings, each child checks these behaviors on his recording card.

C. Observer will also record checks on separate checksheet.

D. At end of 30 minute sessions, observer and students compare records "to determine the accuracy of their self-monitoring."

E. If student's record agrees with observer's, he receives that number of points plus bonus points for "honesty or recording". (Fewer points given for lesser accuracy.)

At end of the time (e.g. 1 hour), may exchange points for:

1. Free time
2. Save points for the following:

   ____

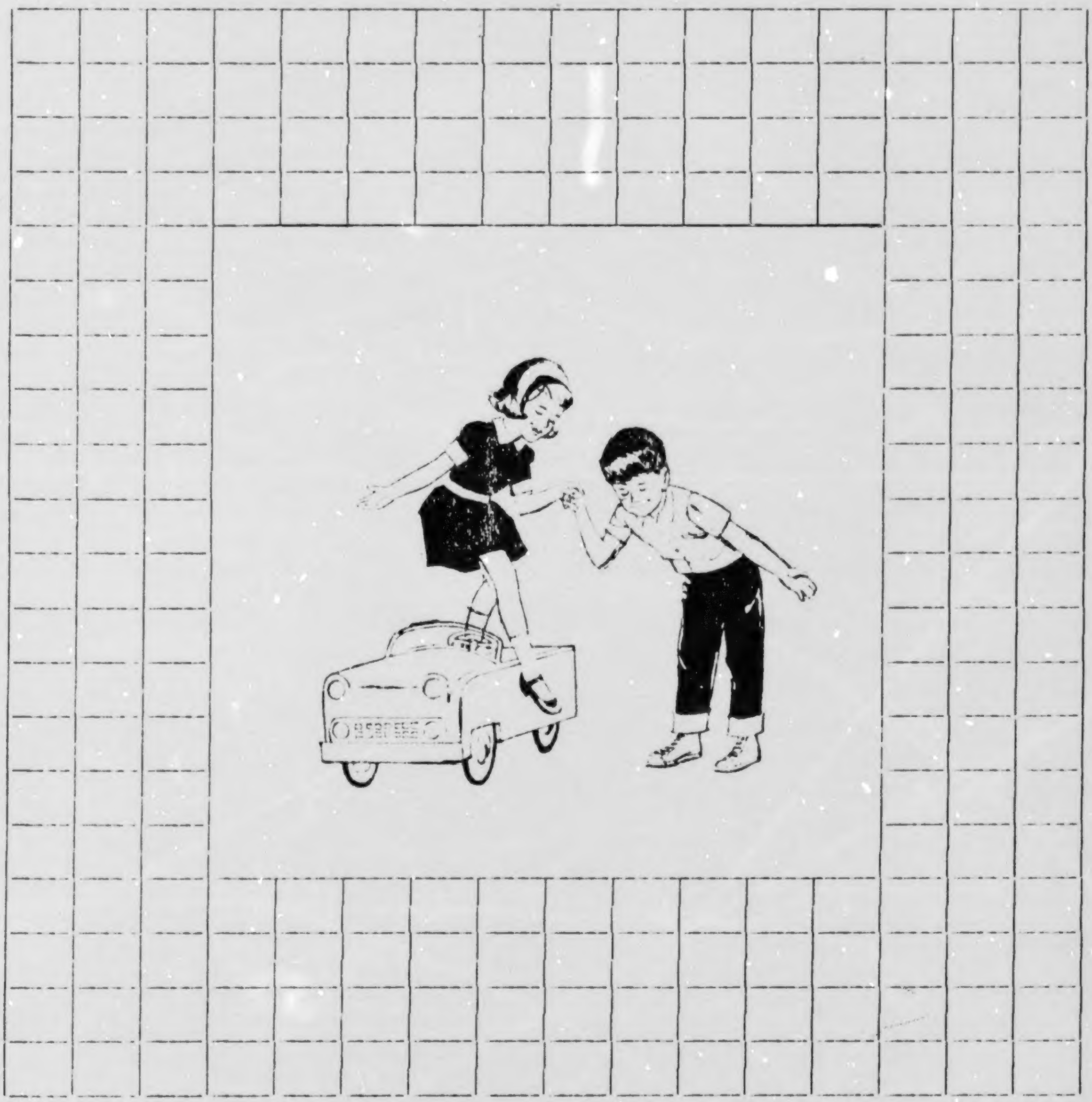
   ____

   ____

   and work on

   ____

AREA: Self-Change Techniques
LEVEL: PI
SOURCE: Mark Cannon, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1
PROCEDURE: Picture or description of desired behavior is placed in center. Using paper punch, stars, markers the student records behavior. Observer will also record on separate checksheet to provide accuracy. Bonus for honesty suggested.



Reading List

Self-Monitoring

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Mahoney, M.J., Moore, B., Wade, T., & Mcvra, V. The effects of continuous and intermittent self-monitoring on academic behavior. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 1973, *41*, 65-69.

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Meichenbaum, D., & Cameron, E. Training schizophrenics to talk to themselves: a means of developing attentional controls. *Behavior Therapy*, 1973, *4*, 515-534.

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Rutner, I.T., & Bugle, C. An experimental procedure for the modification of psychotic behavior. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 1969, *33*, 651-653.

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Workman, E.A. & Hector, M.A., Behavioral self-control in classroom settings: A review of the literature. *Journal of School Psychology*, 1978, *16*, No. 3, 227-236.

Submitted by: Mark Cannon, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1

FORWARD

Integration of the behavior disordered student can typically present problems. Rarely is the experience successful unless both students and their teachers have been carefully prepared for the experience. Although the student may be ready to handle the academic demands of the regular classroom, he or she may not have suitable social skills to match the expectations of the teachers and peers in the regular classroom.

The teacher's task in the process of integrating the behavior disordered student then becomes one of intense preparation, generalization and monitoring. The materials included in this section are intended to point out some of the ways this process can be facilitated. Each student will have unique needs to insure successful integration and these materials point out some of those unique techniques.

The materials are largely taken from "Strategies for Planning and Facilitating the Reintegration of Students with Behavioral Disorders" by Maureen A. White. After reviewing various materials in the area of integration, it was determined this was the most complete and practical treatment of the subject. Appreciation is extended to Maureen for this excellent resource.

CONTENTS

Resources

Iowa Monograph: Strategies for Planning and Facilitating the Reintegration of Students with Behavioral Disorders

Adaptations for Teaching Behavior Disordered Students

Sample Monitoring Charts

Assessing the Reintegration of Exceptional Children into the Regular Classroom

RESOURCES

The following is a list of materials available through the Curriculum Laboratory, Special Education Division, Educational Services/Media Services.

Comprehension Plan for Special Education Office
  Santa Barbara Company Schools
  1 Training Reference - SIM - Simulations in Mainstreaming, 1978

The Exceptional Parent Press
  8 Curriculum Guides - Mainstreaming: What Every Child Needs To Know About Disabilities 1978

H & H Enterprises
  - How to Maintain Behavior
  - How to Plan for Generalization

Learning Concepts
  Mainstreaming Series
  1 Activity Book - The Public Law Supporting Mainstreaming, Primary through Senior High, 1977

Midwest Regional Resource Center
  28 Curriculum Guides - Integrating Secondary Handicapped Students into Vocational and General Education Curriculums: Monograph 2, 1980

Modern Education Corporation
  - PRO 101 (set 1:S Sound) Problem Solving Cards
  - PRO 102 (set 2:R Sound) Problem Solving Cards

Research for Better Sounds
  - Behavior Management Strategies for Classroom Application: An Inservice Training Manual for Regular Classroom Teachers DF-60

U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare
  Mainstreaming Preschoolers
  1 Teacher's Guide - Children with Emotional Disturbance, Preschool, 1978

AREA: egration
SOURCE: Midwest Regional Resources Center, Drake University, Des Moines, IA

ADAPTATIONS FOR TEACHING BEHAVIOR DISORDERED STUDENTS

You have just been notified that a behavior disordered student has been added to your class list and will be mainstreamed into your class. Given the list of characteristics below and the example situations and tasks which might contribute to the student's failure, list other suggestions which might cause problems in your class. Then look at classroom adaptations given and make suggestions of how you might adapt.

Characteristics	Examples of Situations and Tasks Which Might Cause Problems for a Behavior Disordered Student in Your Classroom	Classroom Adaptations
1. Lacks adequate time concepts.	1. a) Giving long-range assignments such as packets or units that extend over several days or weeks. b) Your suggestions:	1. a) Use daily assignments. b) Use timer to achieve an awareness of time concept. c) Shorten assignments so student can see an end to work. d) Maintain consistency in daily routine and in enforcing class rules from day to day. e) Establish intermediate due dates on long projects. f) Your suggestions:
2. Becomes easily frustrated in normally unstressful situations. a) Lacks tolerance for failure. b) Refuses to attempt tasks or participate in activities perceived as too difficult or where failure has been experienced.	2. a) Being critical. b) Not being accessible when problems first develop to provide immediate intervention. c) Expecting students to master skills or concepts quickly and accurately on first trial. d) Your suggestions:	2. a) Start students working but don't give all of the answers. b) Make it easy for them to ask for help. c) Perform task analysis on each essential task/concept in the training program before instruction is begun. Provide more practice or instruction when difficult concepts/tasks are identified. d) Allowing training pace to be flexible. e) Provide several types of training scheules: i) modular schedules

Characteristics	Examples of Situations and Tasks Which Might Cause Problems for a Behavior Disordered Student in Your Classroom	Classroom Adaptations
		ii) early dismissal if student cannot emotionally handle a full day
		iii) community work placement
		iv) longer or shorter instruction periods
		v) summer and remedial programs
		vi) mini-programs
		vii) support programs - mental health counseling, etc.
		f) Reduce or eliminate stressful situations in class. If the BD student cannot get along with another student, assign work station at opposite locations.
		g) Learn to anticipate potential problem situations and organize the schedule or physical environment to avoid confrontation. Example: If the last 15 minutes of class is a problem for the student, give him/her an errand to run or assign the student clean-up duty.
		h) Assist the student by helping him/her identify problem situations and strategies for avoiding blow-ups.
		i) Assist the student in learning to identify personal feelings in stressful situations, what results, and ways of coping.

Characteristics	Examples of Situations and Tasks Which Might Cause Problems for a Behavior Disordered Student in Your Classroom	Classroom Adaptations
		j) Incorporate community work experience and field trips into the training program and conduct job follow-up. k) Assign a preplanned alternate activity when the student be comes easily frustrated but does not ask for teacher help. The activity should involve motor activity and should be different from the task which caused the frustration. This allows transfer of frustrations to the motor behavior. Another student should be identified to assist the student in completing the alternate activity. Have instructions for the alternate activity prepared and required materials available to avoid need for supervision. l) Your suggestions:

Characteristics	Examples of Situations and Tasks Which Might Cause Problems for a Behavior Disordered Student in Your Classroom	Classroom Adaptations
3. Inability to evaluate and deal with reality on a day-to day basis. a) Unexplained fears or phobias. b) Indulges in excesses--food, religion, cleanliness, etc. c) Abrupt changes in life style, plans, etc. d) Discusses bizarre topics such as murders, serious accidents, disasters, etc. e) Continued inappropriate or immature behavior may include bizarre mannerisms.	3. a) Establishing vague rules. b) Inconsistently enforcing rules. c) Not telling students consequences for inappropriate behavior until they have broken rules. d) Your suggestions:	3. a) Tell students the rules. b) Make rules simple. c) Let students know beforehand what will happen if rules are broken. d) Establish guidelines for class behavior and maintain and support them. This structure establishes limits and goals within the realistic limits of the students and insures success amd security for the BD student. e) Help the BD students examine the relationship between their behavior and the consequences of that behavior for themselves and others. f) Remain consistent in demands and daily routine. g) Help students relate the behavior to the consequences of that behavior. h) Your suggestions:

Characteristics	Examples of Situations and Tasks Which Might Cause Problems for a Behavior Disordered Student in Your Classroom	Classroom Adaptations
4. Inability to function without immediate gratification. a) Requires immediate reinforcement. b) Avoids setting or working toward long-term goals. c) Fails to meet short-term objectives without structure or supervision.	4. a) Failing to grade papers immediately so that students know what they have done right and where help is needed. b) Making long-term project assignments due in several weeks or months. c) Your suggestions:	4. a) Let students know where they stand. b) Make students understand that if they need help they are not "stupid." c) If interest in class or shop work is being lost: i) Ask a question. ii) Ask for opinions on a specific aspect of the topic or technique being discussed or practiced. iii) Ask for a student demonstration. iv) Ask the student to perform another task or activity. d) Encourage and praise the student whenever possible. Give frequent recognition for any close approximation of a desired behavior. e) Your suggestions:

Characteristics	Examples of Situations and Tasks Which Might Cause Problems for a Behavior Disordered Student in Your Classroom	Classroom Adaptations
5. Easily disturbed. a) Overreactions to normal stressful situation or situation perceived as stressful by only that student. b) Intensity and duration of the symptoms is an indicator. The reactions are usually manifested very strongly over a long period of time. c) Engages in compulsive behaviors which become the major focus of life. These may include: drugs, overeating, alcohol, undereating, etc. d) Anxiety seems to permeate daily life -- unknowns, generalities, small problems.	5. a) Conducting unorganized classes. b) Not planning lessons at appropriate difficulty level. These situations cause too much unsupervised activity in the classroom. c) Your suggestions:	5. Allow students the opportunity to work in areas with minimal distraction. a) Establish individual lab areas away from other students for problem students. b) Make assignments for problem students which have less difficulty but provide appropriate practice of new skills. c) If the behavior increases or is not harmful, ignore or do not attend to it. Respond to motivation of the behavior not the manifestation of the behavior. d) Reconstruct the classroom program. For example: If an activity or discussion topic creates a problem, change the class activity immediately. The excitement or verbalization is then channeled into a constructive activity. Example: If a student becomes very hostile during a class project activity, stop the activity immediately and have the student work on another project, task or assignment. e) Remove the student from the problem area, such as an errand, until he/she is able to respond to verbal control. The aim is not to punish but to protect and help the student gain control over feel-

Characteristics	Examples of Situations and Tasks Which Might Cause Problems for a Behavior Disordered Student in Your Classroom	Classroom Adaptations
		ings of anger, uncontrollable laughter, or any other emotion that has gotten out of control. f) Listen to and observe the student. Seek help when unsure about handling a situation. g) Refer the student for special education evaluation if the behavior warrants attention by ancillary personnel. h) Establish firm, consistent safety rules. Instruct the student about the rules and reiterate that when he/she becomes disturbed or anxious about something he/she must stay out of the equipment area and away from dangerous tools. Reinforce appropriate use of dangerous equipment and supervise at all times. i) Incorporate community work experience into the training program on an ongoing basis. j) Your suggestions:

Characteristics	Examples of Situations and Tasks Which Might Cause Problems for a Behavior Disordered Student in Your Classroom	Classroom Adaptations
6. Displays symptoms of physical illness or problems: a) Frequent headaches, stomachache, etc. b) Tendency toward absenteeism or truancy. c) Irregular sleep habits. d) Nervous habits--stuttering, tics, pains. e) Phobias. f) Sleepiness due to medication.	6. a) Allowing stressful classroom situations to develop or failing to recognize their occurrence. These situations result in the student's inability to even start prescribed assignments. b) Your suggestions:	6. a) Eliminate "reason" for stress causing headache, etc. b) Reassure students that honest effort is important and mistakes can be helpful, if analyzed for future applications of the appropriate response. c) Consult with health personnel to set realistic limits. d) Your suggestions:
7. Inability to control desires or feelings when given no boundaries or limits. For example, may not be able to control the urge to run down halls or "wide open spaces." a) Persistent mood of unhappiness or depression. b) Chronic apathy. c) Unexplained or easily provocated aggressive outbursts.	7. a) Allowing too much "open space" in classroom. b) Allowing the student to wander around the room to avoid confrontation. c) Allowing the student to refrain from completing work assignments or homework. d) Your suggestions:	7. a) Divide room to prevent too much freedom of movement. b) Assign a separate work area for specific student. c) Develop a variety of signals that communicate to the student a feeling of disapproval and control (eye contact, hand gestures, snapping fingers). This is more effective at beginning stages of misbehavior. d) Stand, sit or work near a student who is having difficulty to give a feeling of security or control in the environment. e) Defuse tension though humor. Use humor to clear the air

Characteristics	Examples of Situations and Tasks Which Might Cause Problems for a Behavior Disordered Student in Your Classroom	Classroom Adaptations
		and make students feel comfortable when problems arise or blow-up occurs. This demonstrates to the students that the teacher is secure and that he/she can be relied on during stressful periods. f) Appeal directly to personal values such as: i) relationships between teacher and student ii) facts related to the situation iii) student's group code iv) teacher's power of authority This involves being able to say "no" without being angry and to say "yes" without feeling guilty. g) Evaluate and remove objects that have magnetic appeal and elicit inappropriate behavior from students. If not, the disorganization must be accepted as a consequence. h) Physically restrain the student if he/she loses complete control and threatens to injure himself or others around him. This is not needed often but prior provisions should be made for such emergencies. A call to the office for assistance should be made.

Characteristics	Examples of Situations and Tasks Which Might Cause Problems for a Behavior Disordered Student in Your Classroom	Classroom Adaptations
		i) Provide several types of training schedules: i) Modular schedules ii) Early dismissal if student cannot emotionally handle a full day iii) Community work placement iv) Longer or shorter instruction periods v) Summer and remedial programs vi) Mini-programs vii) Support programs - mental health counseling, etc. j) Your suggestions:
8. Capable of average or above average academic achievement but due to emotional disturbance usually experiences difficulty achieving in the school setting.	8. a) Expecting the BD student to perform academically and socially the same as other students in stressful situations. b) Expecting the BD student to perform satisfactorily in every situation. c) Your suggestions:	8. a) Anticipate stressful situations such as test time, assignment or project due dates, etc. and encourage the student to try the task or give an alternate project which has small components with several due dates. b) Recognize the fact that these students will not always perform consistently well from day to day. Praise and reinforce the students' efforts to comply and achieve.

Characteristics	Examples of Situations and Tasks Which Might Cause Problems for a Behavior Disordered Student in Your Classroom	Classroom Adaptations
		c) Recognize that these students may exhibit poor academic skills and modify the task to avoid reading, math or any other deficiencies they may have. d) Your suggestions:
9. Personal-social skill deficiencies, prevents development of effective relationships with adults or peers. a) Frequently picked on by other students. b) Low self-esteem, self-confidence or self-reliance. c) Constantly feels that people are picking on him/her. d) Withdrawn from appropriate interaction with others.	9. a) Allowing students to "pluck your strings" or allowing students to make you mad. Example: tipping chairs, kicking, talking out, out of seat, cussing, go to restroom, etc. b) Allowing students the freedom to move about the room to make remarks to one another. c) Your suggestions:	9. a) Set rules so students know beforehand what the consequences are for fighting, cussing, etc. Then, you don't need to get mad. The punishment is already established. b) Set specific work territories for students with problems and allow no trespassing by other students into this area. c) Observe class at all times to intercede when other students begin to make remarks about students who have a history of having problems. d) Establish a rule that each student is required to mind no one's business but their own. e) Provide opportunities for positive work relationships through structured interaction in small group or on a one-to-one basis.

Characteristics	Examples of Situations and Tasks Which Might Cause Problems for a Behavior Disordered Student in Your Classroom	Classroom Adaptations
		f) Listen to students when they have legitimate problems and help them talk about realistic solutions. g) Become a model for the student and help other students do the same by ignoring but not juding inappropriate behaviors that only you as the teacher must deal with. h) Your suggestions:

AREA: Monitoring Beahvior and Assignments/Sample
LEVEL: JS
SOURCE: Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone Area Education Agency

Date: ____________ Daily Total: ____________ Percent: ____________

Goals

Classes	Arriving on time.	Attending in class.	Remaining in seat.	Working quietly/No talking out.	Following directions without comment.	Getting along with peers/No hassels.	Completing homework.	Teacher's Signature
1. Mech. Drawing								
2. Language								
3. Photography								
4. Learning Center								

Indicate performance by placing + or - on the line for each behavior.

AREA: Monitoring
LEVEL: IJS
SOURCE: Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone Area Education Agency

CLASSROOM PASS AND POINT CARD

TO: ______________________ CLASS: ______________________

FROM: ______________________ DAY: ______________________

TIME: ______________________

______________________ has earned the privilege of attending your class today. He is working on the goals listed below. Feel free to modify these goals to fit your class situation. Please indicate if they were achieved (+) or not (0), sign below, and have the student bring this back. Thank you.

_____ 1. ______________________
_____ 2. ______________________
_____ 3. ______________________
_____ 4. ______________________
_____ 5. ______________________
_____ 6. ______________________

____
Signature

CLASSROOM PASS AND POINT CARD

TO: ______________________ CLASS: ______________________

FROM: ______________________ DAY: ______________________

TIME: ______________________

______________________ has earned the privilege of attending your class today. He is working on the goals listed below. Feel free to modify these goals to fit your class situation. Please indicate if they were achieved (+) or not (0), sign below, and have the student bring this back. Thank you.

_____ 1. ______________________
_____ 2. ______________________
_____ 3. ______________________
_____ 4. ______________________
_____ 5. ______________________
_____ 6. ______________________

____
Signature

AREA: Reintegration
SOURCE: Excerpts from article in Teaching Exceptional Children, Spring, 1970; pages 113-119. Assessing the Reintegration of Exceptional Children into Regular Classes, Judith K. Grosenick, Assistant Professor, *Department of Special Education, University of Missouri, Colulumbia.*

ASSESSING THE REINTEGRATION OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN IN REGULAR CLASSES

Judith K. Grosenick

One of the most important objectives of special education programs for emotionally disturbed children is to return them to regular education programs as soon as possible. In other words, special education is seen as a temporary intervention which should prepare exceptional children for their return to a regular education program. The special class should re-educate the child away from his ineffectual behavior and towards acceptable satisfying behavior patterns necessary for functioning in society (Richmond, 1964).

If one accepts the position that behavior is learned, then one may expect that many emotionally disturbed children will be able to return to a normal setting when they have acquired and maintained acceptable behavior patterns. Evaluating the success of these children's integration and the degree of maintenance of new behavior patterns, however, remains a problem.

Observations and recording of academic and social behaviors were used to evaluate the integration of a group of emotionally disturbed children into a regular class. The methods used in this study can be used not only with emotionally disturbed children, but with all children.

Conclusions drawn from the study. Measurement of observable performance and behavior is one effective means of assessing the effect of movement from environment to another. According to the behavioral standards set for this study, i.e., handraising, leaving one's seat, talking out, and teacher response, the five special class students were successfully integrated into the regular class. The integration of the special students did not produce any significant effects on the performance of the regular class students according to the same behavioral standards. The trend of any change which did occur was in a positive direction.

In the process of this study, an outline of integration procedures was formulated, delineating the actual step by step process and personnel involved in the integration. Although it was developed for a specific investigation, this outline could be used as a guideline by any school system or teacher who wishes to integrate special class students back into a regular program.

Determining whether children were ready to return to regular class. Each special class student was individually tested to determine his readiness to return to a regular classroom. A psychological and an educational evaluation were conducted. Sociometric measures were also used. Observation and recording of arithmetic performance, oral reading performance, study time behaviors, and social behaviors were initiated.

The special class teacher then notified all personnel of each child's readiness to be integrated. People with whom she communicated included the director of the special school in which the children were enrolled, the director of special education services for the public school district, and the special school's social worker who served as liaison between the school and each child's family. The order which the children were to be integrated was suggested by the special class teacher.

The special education director gave the teacher a list of possible classes in which each child might be integrated. The special teacher visited each of the proposed classes and discussed possible integration with the principal. The teacher then met with special school's personnel and the investigator to discuss the results of the visits, evaluate the alternatives, and select the classroom most appropriate for each child.

Preparing for the change. The special class teacher worked to prepare each child for the integration. Each boy was told about the move, and experience charts about the new school were prepared.

After the appropriate class was chosen, a meeting with the regular school personnel was held. The special class teacher, a representative of the special school unit, the regular class teacher, the school principal, and any other persons whose services might be utilized in integrating the child, e.g., the school psychologist and the speech therapist attended the meeting. The purpose of this meeting was to acquaint the school personnel with the child's background and to enlist their cooperation in continuing the collection of data as a means of determining successful integration. Actual date of placement was also established. The regular class teacher was asked to select the four students from his class he thought had the best and the worst study skills.

Preplacement tests (sociometric, timed arithmetic, and social behaviors) were administered to all of the students in each of the regular classes. Observations and recordings of the teacher selected students' arithmetic performance and study time behavior were initiated.

The investigator served as liaison between the regular class and the special class with regard to the program of the regular class and any necessary implementation or adjustment in the special class program in preparing the child for integration. The regular class teacher prepared her class for the new arrival, following the procedures she would usually follow for the entry of a new student. The parents registered the child at the school preceding the integration day, met the teacher, and saw the classroom into which the child would move.

Assessing the initial effect of the change. An attempt was made to have an observer in the regular classroom on the day of the integration. The investigator, if not in the classroom, communicated with the regular class teacher at the end of the integration day to learn the teacher's assessment of the actual placement. All five students were not transferred at the same time. Transfers were spaced approximately two weeks apart to allow adequate intensive pre and post-placement observation.

Follow-up observation. Ongoing recording of the arithmetic performance, oral reading performance, study time behavior, and social behavior was continued. These results were communicated to the regular class teacher. The investigator maintained a communication link between the regular class and the special class with regard to each child's progress. The parents were kept informed of their child's progress through the efforts of the special class teacher, the regular class teacher, and the special school's social worker.

Frequency of observation was decreased when the data indicated that the child was maintaining himself in the new setting. Periodic observations and communication with the regular class teacher were made after continuous observation had been withdrawn. Post-tests were administered at the end of the academic year in each of the classes.

At the special school, a final staff meeting was held to evaluate the success of each integration. This meeting included the investigator, the special class teacher, the social worker, and other personnel. The investigator met with each regular class teacher, the social worker, and other personnel. The investigator met with each regular class teacher at the end of the academic year to discuss placement for the forthcoming year.

Using behavioral observation for diagnostic purposes. If the measurement procedures used in this study are an effective indication of degree of integration, one might speculate as to their value in identification and referral of children for diagnostic evaluation and subsequent special education placement. Recording observations about the behavior of children who have been referred for psychological and educational evaluation would not only result in clear, concise pictures of the entire class' functioning and the individual children's performance, but also allow a comparison of the two. This would permit some assessment of the degree of "deviancy" from the norms of the class.

Using behavioral observation to record daily progress. It is possible for a set of class behavior norms to be established for any particular classroom.

For example, Figure 1 shows a hypothetical classroom in which four behaviors were observed, i.e., handraising, talking out, out of seat, and teacher response to the previous three. Such a recording device shows the teacher that one corner of the classroom appears more active. The teacher may, on the basis of these observations, choose to do some seat moving if this active corner is disturbing the class as a whole. Any behavior of interest to the teacher could be chosen, defined and observed in depth. Then, establishing a seating chart appropriate for this class, the teacher could conduct observations during any part of the day. By using a seating chart recording form, the teacher can literally "see" any trouble areas within the class. In addition, she can identify any particularly disturbing children, and, as a result, change their seats and possibly alleviate the problem.

These data, moreover can be transformed into a set of norms. An actual summary sheet could be devised to record the frequency of the behavioral occurrences.

In the above classroom, one could compute the daily frequency of occurrence of the four behaviors, the range for the week, and the weekly average. Since the information would be available on each student in the class as well as on the entire class, the teacher could assess each child in relation to the whole class or in relation to the child's past performance. Obviously, this would be a valuable source of feedback information to the teacher, not only of the classroom functioning, but also of his own teaching methodology.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Figure 1. A seating chart recording form.

Teacher ______________________________

Date ________________________________

Time ________________________________

Child _______________________________

Code:
H = Handicapped
T = Talking Out
O = Out of Seat

Draw a circle around any of the above code letters to designate teacher's response to H, T, and/or O.

SEATING CHART

H			O			
	HHT	O				TO
						TH
	H			O	TT	TTH
				O	OT	TH

With more comprehensive behavioral and performance information available on a classroom, placement in special classes could be based upon solid knowledge rather than intuition. One could, more or less, match the functioning of the child to be integrated with the appropriately functioning classroom. This could serve to increase the percentage of successful integrations.

Using behavioral observations to create cumulative records. One final application of behavioral observations involves establishing a complete behavioral and performance profile for each exceptional child. As was previously suggested, these techniques could be applied to develop a picture of the child for use in diagnosis and placement. By maintaining the observation and recording of the child's functioning and performance within the special class, one would obtain a complete picture of the child: pre-special education, placement, and post-placement. Such a comprehensive picture, a sort of behavioral cumulative record, would serve not only to evaluate any changes within the child, but also to assess the special education intervention itself.

Since special education class placement must not be viewed as a dead end for all exceptional children, and since the responsibility of integrating children from special classes to regular classes falls predominantly on the shoulders of the teachers, it behooves the teachers to use tools and techniques which provide an effective means of assessing the acquisition and maintenance of desirable behavior and performance patterns. Such assessment will serve to reduce the haphazards associated with transferring children from one environment to another.

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STRATEGIES FOR PLANNING AND FACILITATING THE REINTEGRATION OF STUDENTS WITH BEHAVIORAL DISORDERS

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CONTENTS

Introduction 1

Pre-placement Information 2

Determining Readiness for Reintegration 4

Selection of the Teacher and Classroom for Reintegration 7

Preparing the Regular Class Teacher for the BD Student 12

Preparing the BD Student for Reintegration 15

Generalization from the BD Classroom to the Regular Classroom 17

Follow-up of Reintegration 22

References 25

Appendices 27

  Appendix A - Classroom Teacher Report 28

  Appendix B - Responsibilities in Facilitating Reintegration Plans . . . 34

  Appendix C - Mainstreaming Contract 36

  Appendix D - Follow-up Reports 37

  Appendix E - Structured Reintegration Program 46

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INTRODUCTION

This document was developed to provide information for teachers and other professionals involved in the reintegration of students with behavior disorders. Impetus for its development came from our professional need to meet a frequently cited goal of programming for students with behavior disorders; the eventual return or reintegration of the student to a regular classroom.

The reintegration process involves obtaining identification information prior to placement in a special class, determining readiness for reintegration, and selection of the teachers and site for reintegration. It also involves preparing the regular class teacher and the BD student for reintegration, providing for generalization to the regular classroom, following-up on progress, as well as delineating responsibilities within the reintegration process.

The following suggestions are those of one professional and are based on the results of two studies (Smith, White, and Peterson, 1979; Peterson, Zabel, Smith and White, 1980), a review of available literature, and direct experience as a teacher of students with behavioral disorders. While these suggestions are directed towards the reintegration of behavior disordered youngsters, they might also be useful in facilitating the reintegration of other handicapped children as well. These ideas are presented as an informational guide meant to be adapted to meet the needs of a variety of programs from which students may be reintegrated.

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PRE-PLACEMENT INFORMATION IN RELATION TO REINTEGRATION

Procedures for reintegration of behaviorally disordered (BD) students should be considered and developed in relation to the total programming process. Therefore, reintegration procedures can be thought of as beginning with referral for placement of a student in a BD class and ending with follow-up evaluations after the student returns to his/her "home" school and classroom. Development of clearly stated guidelines for each step of this process is necessary.

The decision to place a student in a BD class is made during a staffing attended by parents, educators, and other professionals. The decision is based on information gathered by a multi-disciplinary team of professionals. The following types of information should be available from this support staff team:

School psychologist report
Intelligence test data
Academic status information
Behavior rating scales/checklists
Clinical reports (if any)
Vision/hearing/language screening
Family/home information
Health history
Self-concept/personal adjustment information
Sociometric measures
Systematic classroom observation information

Among these, BD teachers have ranked clinical/psychological reports, systematic classroom observation data, and behavior rating scales/checklists as among the most useful pre-placement information (Peterson, et al, 1980). However, according to this study, only clinical/psychological reports were typically available.

In this same study, information from the regular classroom teacher who referred the student for evaluation was consistently rated by ED/BD teachers as being useful pre-placement information and as being useful in designing educational programs. Information from the classroom teacher, though, was found not to be typically available to many ED/BD teachers.

In obtaining information from a regular classroom teacher, both academic and social/behavioral areas should be considered. The information may be solicited in the form of a checklist and/or a listing of questions. An example is provided in Appendix A. Possible subjects to include are:

Academic

A criterion based report of academic status in regular classroom.
A description of student's strenghts.
A description of student's weaknesses.
A listing of successful and unsuccessful teaching strategies.
A listing of curriculum materials used, levels in these materials, and units completed.

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Social/Behavioral

A statement of:

The teacher's perceptions of the child's major behavioral problems.

How the student's behavior affects the teacher and student's in daily activities.

A description of specific aspects of the child's behavior such as: interactions with teachers
interactions with peers
self-involved behavior.

A description of:

Ways in which the teacher has tried to deal with the problem behaviors (successful and unsuccessful intervention techniques).

Successful and unsuccessful rewards and motivators.

The extent of parental involvement in working with the child at school.

A listing of resources used by the teacher or other school personnel (e.g. mental health agencies, psychologists, counselors, educational strategists, and consultants).

Information about a student which is provided by support staff and the regular classroom teacher serves as valuable baseline information for the BD teacher. Needs identified at the time of placement may generally be used as long term goals on a student's Individual Educational Program (IEP). Such information may also help the BD teacher identify specific behaviors for the focus of a behavior modification program. Documentation of a student's academic and social/behavioral status in the regular classroom prior to enrollment in the BD class serves as a baseline for evaluating progress while in the BD classroom and is helpful in determining a student's readiness for reintegration.

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DETERMINING READINESS FOR REINTEGRATION

The decision to initiate reintegration of a student will ordinarily be made at a meeting attended by the:

BD teacher
School principal
Parents
BD support staff.

Student involvement during all or part of this meeting may be appropriate in the case of a secondary student.

The purpose of this meeting is to determine if an ED/BD student is ready to be reintegrated at least part-time into a regular classroom. This is a student-centered process in which instructional and social/behavioral needs identified at the time of placement in the ED/BD class are compared with the student's current status in the BD classroom. The student's status and needs are then compared with characteristics of the regular classroom environment.

Social/Behavioral Considerations

When asked to indicate factors important in deciding to reintegrate a student, BD teachers frequently listed behavioral progress within the special class setting and outside the special classroom as the most important consideration in readiness (Smith, et al, 1979). There are many other social/behavioral considerations when deciding whether a student is ready to work in a regular classroom. Among them are:

Behavioral needs identified at time of placement have been met (IEP).
Behavioral needs identified after placement have been met (IEP).
Psychological evaluation - compare with placement evaluation.
Behavior rating scale/checklist comparisons with placement scales.
Student self-evaluations.
Sociometric devices.
Current self-concept inventory.
Systematic behavior observation records - compare observations in BD classroom with those prior to placement.
Teacher's anecdotal records regarding behavior.
Student's demonstration of self control (without adult supervision).
Student's positive attitude toward school.
Student's ability to follow classroom rules and work in a variety of classroom settings.
Student's ability to discuss feelings, anticipate consequences, and to handle frustrations.
Student's ability to refrain from disturbing others.
Student's demonstrated ability to make friends and to maintain friendships over a period of time.
Student's demonstration of appropriate behavior in hallways, lunch room, on the playground.
Student's appropriate behavior in special areas classes.
Student's ability to work successfully with more than one teacher.

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Instructional Considerations

The student's academic status must be considered and a determination made regarding ways in which the following may affect successful reintegration.

Academic needs identified at the time of placement have been met (IEP).
Academic needs identified after placement have been met (IEP).
Student has progressed academically in accordance with his/her ability.
Student's ability to follow oral and written instructions.
Student's ability to work independently.
Student's ability to remain on task.
Student's ability to handle academic stress.
Student's ability to accept failure.
Student's completion of assignments on time, including homework.
Student asks for help before giving up on academic work.
Student accepts help.
Student accepts correction of mistakes on assignments.
Student participates in group activities, both structured and unstructured.

In the case of social or instructional considerations, no one student will consistently meet all these criteria. A decision has to be made regarding which are the most important for success.

These particular student related factors will influence the selection of areas within a regular classroom in which to initiate reintegration. A student should first be reintegrated into a subject area in which his/her strengths definitely outweigh deficiences. For example, a student who has improved and maintained good social skills, yet has many academic deficiencies, is likely to do best in a non-academic area.

At the other extreme is the student who is at or above grade level academically but who still has relatively poor social skills. The decision may be made to reintegrate the student into a regular class if it is a classroom which is highly structured and allows limited interactions between students. The advantage is likely academic stimulation due to the presence of other very capable students as well as the opportunity for peers to demonstrate appropriate behavior.

Those students who are functionally far below grade level are often the most difficult to reintegrate full-time despite improved social/behavioral skills. Stress due to academic expectations in a regular classroom may be very difficult for this type of student to handle and could easily lead to a return to disruptive behavior. It is also difficult to find a regular class teacher who will agree to take a low-functioning child with past behavior problems. There is no easy answer to this problem. The best we can hope for is a teacher and other school personnel who are willing to make modifications to accommodate the student's deficiencies and well trained special education personnel who can assist other educators in making the adjustments.

Recommendations

Those involved in the decision to reintegrate a student need to have thoroughly discussed the instructional and social advantages and disadvantages of part-time regular class placement, and need to have examined the aspects of the regular class environment in relation to the student's characteristics and needs.

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This should be done before formulating a recommendation. A written recommendation should then be developed for the classroom teacher, detailing reasons for choosing the subject area and suggestions for the teacher. For example:

> "Mike is a third grader who is currently working alone in the third grade math book. He could benefit from group instruction and practice, especially for multiplication and division. He is cooperative with the teacher and students and tries hard but still has some difficulty understanding and following directions in a group setting. It is recommended that Mike be seated in close proximity to the teacher, that the teacher check with him privately to ask him to repeat the directions after giving them to the group, and that the teacher check one more time during the period to see that he is still following directions correctly."

More information than this will be provided when the BD teacher talks to the regular class teacher. A written recommendation is simply to set goals for reintegration, to define target behaviors, and to insure that suggestions are provided for the regular class teacher.

Structured Reintegration Program

One method of incorporating the goal of reintegration into the daily programming of a BD classroom is a structured reintegration program as described in Appendix E. Under this structure, the primary goal which is communicated to the student is reintegration into a regular classroom. The student works to earn points toward that goal and progresses through a number of "phases" prior to and during reintegration.

Under this type of structure, readiness for reintegration is assessed on a day-to-day basis. Progress toward the goal is readily apparent to the student, parents, and teacher.

When to Reintegrate

An unexpected finding in a study of integration procedures (Grosenick, 1971) was that Wednesday was the day chosen by students and parents for starting in a regular class. By starting on Wednesday, a weekend of anxiety was avoided. The student also had the advantage of having several days to become familiar with the new classroom or school, so that after a relaxing weekend he could have a "fresh start" on Monday. The same preference held true for the period following a vacation.

If a student has been successfully reintegrated on a part-time or partial day basis into regular classrooms in the school in which the BD classroom is located, full-time reintegration is usually the next consideration. Experience of BD teachers seems to indicate that it is best to proceed with full-time reintegration in that school before considering full-time return to the student's "home school." Often, it is best to allow the student to finish the school year as a full-time student in a regular classroom in that school and to then return to his home school in the fall. The decision whether the student goes to his "home school" immediately in the fall or returns to the BD class for a short period will depend on the individual student. Some students may need a few weeks to readjust to school routines in the relatively familiar and secure environment of the BD classroom before starting in a different classroom and/or school. For other students, it may be best to start in the regular class immediately in the fall so that the student has the feeling that "this is my class."

Regular follow-up information, as discussed in a later section, will be of prime consideration in any changes in a student's reintegration schedule.

SELECTION OF THE TEACHER AND THE CLASSROOM

One of the most vital steps for assuring the success of reintegration is careful selection of a regular class teacher and classroom. The limited research which is available suggests that this is usually a subjective decision. Grosenick (1971) reported that the three prime considerations in selection of the classroom were:

1. The cooperativeness and willingness of the regular class teacher to accept a special class student.

2. The personality of the regular class teacher as compared to the needs of the student.

3. Special academic needs of the student and the flexibility available in regular class programming.

Sattler and Notari (1973) reported that regular class teachers were selected on the basis of attitude, rapport, and teaching style. Others (Kounin, Friesan and Norton, 1966) stress behavioral management competencies in those regular education teachers who are successful with BD students. They emphasize the teacher's ability to communicate awareness, program activities and to initiate and handle movement in the classroom. Competencies of regular class teachers which Kaplan (1976) found to be vital in successful reintegration were the areas of behavior modification, precision teaching, and diagnostic and prescriptive instructional techniques.

Special class teachers responding to a reintegration practices survey (Peterson, et al, 1980) tended to rate teacher characteristics as somewhat more important than teacher skills when considering placing a student with a regular class teacher. Rankings are in the order of most important (1) to least Important (13).

TABLE I

Teacher Factors in Selecting Site for Student Integration

Teacher Factors	Mean Rating	Rank
Attitude toward behavioral problems	6.557	1
Behavioral expectations	6.369	2
Willingness to modify curriculum	6.335	3
Attitude toward integration	6.333	4
Rapport with this student	6.172	5
Rapport with other students	5.948	6
Previous success with integration	5.926	7
Academic expectations	5.844	8
Personality	5.831	9
Knowledge of E.D. students	5.727	10
Proficiency in behavior management	5.587	11
Relationship with you	4.987	12
Training to integrate	4.905	13

Number of respondents ranged from 398 to 406 on items.

From the same study, classroom related factors are listed in their order of importance.

TABLE II

Classroom Factors in Selecting Site for Student Integration

Classroom Factors	Mean Rating*	Rank
Degree of classroom structure	6.322	1
Level of curriculum/materials	5.955	2
Range of student behaviors in class	5.911	3
Number of students in class	5.688	4
Behavior management systems	5.578	5
Number of other integrated students	5.510	6
Range of academic functioning levels	5.481	7
Availability of aides/volunteers	4.424	8
Location and convenience	3.758	9

*Number of respondents ranged from 396 to 405 on items.

Table III contains items chosen as the "most important" teacher or classroom factors in choosing a site for reintegration.

TABLE III

"Most Important" Factors in Choosing a Site for Reintegration

Factor	Frequency*	Percentage	Rank
Teacher's attitude toward behavior problems	172	39.7	1
Teacher's willingness/skills to modify curriculum	157	36.3	2
Teacher's attitude toward integration	151	34.9	3
Teacher's behavioral expectations	133	30.7	4
Teacher's rapport with this particular student	93	21.5	5
Degree of classroom structure	81	18.7	6
Teacher's academic expectations	52	12.0	7
Teacher's proficiency in use of behavioral management techniques	52	12.0	7
Level of curriculum and materials	52	12.0	7
Teacher's previous success with integrated students	47	10.9	8
Number of students in class	46	10.6	9
Teacher's knowledge of ED students	43	9.9	10
Teacher's personality	40	9.2	11
Teacher's rapport with other students	31	7.2	12
Range of student behaviors in class	25	5.8	13
Behavior management systems	21	4.8	14
Range of student academic functioning level	21	4.8	14
Teacher's training to integrate students	20	4.6	15
Teacher's relationship with you	14	3.2	16
Number of other integrated students in class	11	2.5	17
Availability of aides/volunteers	1	0.2	18
Location and convenience of the classroom	1	0.2	18
Other	27	6.3	-
Totals	1291	298.2	

*Each of 433 respondents could indicate a maximum of three factors as "most important".

One approach to selection of a teacher and/or classroom is systematic examination of the components of a regular classroom so that the needs of the child can be matched to a suitable classroom environment. One such instrument is the "Assessment of Classroom Learning Environment Scale" (ACLE) (Reynolds and Birch, 1977). This is an instrument by which the BD and regular class teacher can examine twelve aspects of a regular classroom to develop a classroom profile. This profile can then be used to verify whether certain environmental factors crucial for success are present in that classroom. Another example in the "Learning Environment Inventory" which is used by a teacher as a self-examination of fifteen classroom environment factors (Miller, 1979). This inventory was developed by H. J. Walberg.

Regardless of the methods or criteria used for selection of the regular class teacher or classroom, it is important for the ED/BD teacher to consult with the building principal regarding this decision. The principal is in the best position to help select the teacher because of his/her knowledge of the strengths, weaknesses, and personality of faculty members (Stone, 1971).

PREPARING THE REGULAR CLASS TEACHER FOR THE BD STUDENT

After selecting the regular classroom teacher, it is important to hold a meeting or a series of meetings with that teacher in order to explain why that teacher and classroom was selected, convey information about the student, discuss goals for reintegration, describe routines to which the child was accustomed in the special class, discuss recommendations and suggestions for working with the student, discuss how follow-up feedback or evaluation will be done, and to answer questions and respond to concerns about the student. This may be a very time consuming task but is essential if an accurate picture of the student is going to be conveyed and responsibilitites clearly delineated.

A BD teacher cannot realistically cover all of the following topics in great detail during these meetings. A variety of ideas are included so that the most pertinent items can be selected.

Why me?

Explain what this teacher can offer in relation to the student's needs (focus on personality or teaching skills).

Explain how elements of classroom structure are compatible with student needs.

Student Information

Describe positive attributes of the student to tell why you feel he can be integrated into the regular class.

Describe the student's progress in relation to needs identified at the time of placement and those identified following placement.

Describe successful approaches used in managing behavior problems with this student's (emphasize application of these techniques to the regular classroom).

Describe techniques that have been useful in teaching the student to approach a task, to establish work habits, or to manage his own behavior.

Discuss any limits or controls that are still needed by the student to aid in managing his own behavior.

Discuss failures you've had in working with the students.

Discuss placements in basal materials.

If the student takes medication, talk about the effects of it, determine who will see that it is administered on schedule.

Relate any unusual mannerisms in which the student may engage.

Discuss the student's feelings about reintegration and the possible feeling of rejection by the BD teacher.

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Discuss behavior that may signal the student is having difficulty

Discuss the level of parental support and involvement in reintegration efforts.

Reintegration Goals

Review goals developed by those who decided to reintegrate the student (provide a copy).

Discuss long term goals for the student in terms of eventual return to his/her home school.

BD Classroom Routines

Clarify any terminology relevant to special education with which the teacher may not be familiar.

Describe common elements of the regular classroom which have been incorporated into the BD classroom.

Describe behavioral and academic expectations within the BD classroom in relation to this student in particular.

Discuss materials used in the BD classroom, including those common to the regular classroom, as well as special materials.

Recommendations and Suggestions

Decide on academic and behavioral expectations for the student while in the regular classroom.

Discuss interim adjustments in requirements which may be necessary before expecting full compliance with all regular classroom expectations.

Discuss ways of incorporating special materials (if any) into the curriculum.

Decide how responsibility for the student's assignments and responsibility for supervision of behavior will be coordinated.

Decide how much work will be assigned, how much work to expect to be completed, and what to do if work is not done.

Discuss positive incentives which have been used and those which can fairly inconspicuously be incorporated into the regular classroom, if necessary.

Follow-up Methods and Time-lines

Establish a daily feedback method for the student.

Review checklists or questionnaires the teacher may be periodically asked to complete.

Review time-line for reintegration evaluations.

Review criteria to be met before increasing time student spends in the regular classroom.

Questions and Concerns

Discuss how the student will be prepared for the transition.

Discuss what to say to the regular class students about the BD student.

Ask the regular class teacher what problems he/she may foresee.

Select the starting date for reintegration.

Establish times for communication between the regular and special class teacher.

Invite the regular classroom teacher to observe the student in the BD classroom if schedules allow.

Ask to observe in the regular classroom, if schedules allow.

Offer to provide materials, suggestions and support on an on-going basis.

Stress that if things are not going well, the BD teacher needs to be informed so that plans may be re-evaluated.

In addition, Vandervelde and Elmer (1980) have suggested the following end results of meetings planning for the reintegration of pupils. The participants should feel they have:

Given an accurate picture of the student and his/her needs.

Written realistic goals and objectives for re-integration.

Established a time-line for evaluation of re-integration.

Established a feedback system for the student.

Established a communication system daily/weekly between the special class teacher and regular class teacher.

Established what circumstances or reactions signal that the student is having difficulty.

Develop a transition plan for the student to meet the regular teacher and become aware of the objectives for re-integration.

Delineated responsibilities of professionals, student, parents involved in re-integration process.

Asked questions about any area of concern or hesitation.

PREPARING THE BD STUDENT FOR REINTEGRATION

The BD teacher should develop specific strategies for helping the student generalize the similarities and differences between the BD program he is leaving and his new regular classroom. Preparing the student for the rules and routines he will encounter, schedules, materials, teacher characteristics, and peer characteristics will help the student more easily recognize appropriate behaviors in both classroom settings and with both teachers. Activities to use in preparing the student, some of which are from a book by Gallagher (1979), include:

> Begin to emphasize in casual ways the eventual return to the regular classroom, e. g, "That's how you'll do your math paper in your third grade class."
>
> Discuss the schedule and activities in which the student will be involved.
>
> Give the student an opportunity to discuss his feelings about working with the regular class.
>
> Help the student plan how he will do things in the regular classroom. Examples include:
>
> > What will you do if someone is trying to fight with you?
> >
> > What will you do if you don't have the materials you need?
> >
> > What if you don't understand the directions for an assignment after the teacher has explained it to the class?
> >
> > What will you do if you feel yourself getting upset in your freshman science class?
> >
> > What will you do if the noise level in the sixth grade classroom bothers you and you can't concentrate on your work?
> >
> > What will you do if the teacher corrects you for breaking a classroom rule?
>
> Introduce the student to his new teacher.
>
> Send the student on errands to the regular classroom.
>
> Have the student visit the regular classroom before school to become familiar with the surroundings.
>
> Arrange for the student to be invited to his new class for a "fun" activity such as a film.
>
> Ask the teacher to visit the student during an activity time in the BD classroom, if schedules allow.

Acquaint the student with routines in his new class such as rules, grading system, material, and schedules (involve the regular class teacher in this if possible).

If the student is returning to his home school, explain transportation arrangements, where he will eat lunch, when he will arrive and leave, and where to meet the bus.

Explain how the student will be rewarded for appropriate behavior in the regular classroom and how he will know he is doing well.

Enlist the support of the parents, when appropriate, in preparing the student for a change in classrooms.

Explain how you and his parents will be informed of his academic and social/behavioral progress in the regular classroom. For example: "I will be talking with your teacher every week to see how well you're doing." OR "You'll bring a pass back from your sixth grade teacher every day at the end of math which tells me how well you behaved and did your work."

GENERALIZATION AND MAINTAINCE OF BEHAVIOR FROM THE BD CLASSROOM TO THE REGULAR CLASSROOM

When a child is reintegrated, regular classroom teachers usually expect the child to be "cured" and all behavior problems ameliorated (Walker, 1978). The teachers will often be disappointed to find that this has not occured unless efforts have been made to promote generalization and maintainance of behavioral gains to the regular classroom.

Generalization is the occurance of relevant behavior under different, non-training conditions (i.e., across subjects, settings, people, behaviors, and/or time (Stokes and Baer, 1977). Maintainance is defined as the occurance of the behavior over a period of time or trails (Koegel and Rencover, 1977). The term generalization is most often used in relation to setting and maintainance is most often used in reference to time. A distinction is made between the two because factors which influence generalization may be quite different from those which influence maintainance.

Early researchers in the area of classroom intervention effects assumed that generalization was something which happened without special intervention (Stokes and Baer, 1977; Walker, 1978). Research in this area is limited; however, recent research tends to indicate that generalization and maintainance of behavior does not naturally occur when treatment procedures are abruptly withdrawn (Walker and Buckley, 1972). Recent research also shows that interventions are specific to settings and are not necessarily maintained over time (Walker, 1978). Walker's study was a limited attempt (two subjects) to determine if child behavior modification techniques applied in the home would result in changed behavior at school and if behavior modification techniques applied in school would automatically result in changed behavior at school. Four classes of student behavior were recorded: oppositional behavior, cooperative behavior, disruptive behavior and study behavior. Behavior management techniques were taught to the parents of each student. Teachers were also given similar training. In the case of both subjects, improved behavior in the home was not followed by improved behavior in the school until teachers implemented modification of contingencies at school. Data from this limited study supports the view that there is no setting generality between home and school. Research tells us that child behavior tends to be a function of the stimulus and contingencies which exist in whatever setting the child is in (Walker, 1978).

Recent research also points out that behavior will not maintain over time if support procedures used to produce those effects are withdrawn. Behavior modification programs are generally regarded as very effective in producing behavior change (Lira and White, 1978; Reisinger, 1978; Lobitz and Burns, 1977). But behavior will not generalize from classrooms using behavior modification techniques unless systematic fading procedures are used, attempts are made to transfer behavioral control to readily available reinforcers, or efforts are made to reprogram the environment in which maintainance and/or generalization is expected (Walker, 1978; Walker and Buckley, 1972).

To develop a successful "treatment" program then, we need to first of all provide for acquisition of initial behavioral change, provide for generalization of that change to settings outside the BD classroom and provide for maintaince of change over time in settings outside the BD classroom (Koegel and Rencover, 1977).

Suggestions for Generalization/Maintainance of Behavior

Much time, money, effort, and concern are put into acquisition of the initial behavior change in the BD classroom. Since return to the regular classroom is the generally accepted goal of programming for BD students, we need to do everything possible to insure that behavior gains are of long duration and that they generalize to other settings.

Recent research contains some general principles and suggestions which BD personnel can follow when developing the structure and routines for the BD classroom, when writing the IEP for the student while he is in the BD classroom, and when formulating recommendations for regular classroom teachers during the reintegration process. Implicit in these recommendations is that fact that we must plan for generalization/maintaince of behavior rather then assuming that it will occur naturally.

Grosenick (1971) recommends providing experiences in the BD classroom which are similar to those in the regular classroom. Such experiences may include practice for fire drills and storm warning drills, independent use of free time, and appropriate behavior in the library, cafeteria, etc. Other practices which may serve to provide a setting similar to a regular classroom include:

1. Location of the BD classroom among regular classrooms rather than in isolation.
2. Use of typical arrangements of desks and tables rather than individual study carrels in which each student is isolated.
3. Use of the same instructional materials as the regular classroom, to the extent possible.
4. Establishment of a curriculum in the BD classroom which follows regular classroom requirements.
5. Use of the same grading system as the regular classroom with modifications only as necessary.
6. Participation in all-school programs and assemblies.
7. Shared recess and lunch times with regular classrooms.
8. Inclusion of activities in the curriculum to develop self-control and ability to handle self without intervention from a teacher.
9. Encouragement of independent study habits.
10. Use of group instruction whenever possible as opposed to a totally individualized program.
11. Becoming familiar with typical routines and behavioral expectations in a regular classroom and incorporating these whenever possible in a BD classroom.

Recommendations for other types of generalization strategies are found in recent research.

Walker (1978) stresses teaching a BD child to initiate and respond positively to another child. This type of positive interactive behavior is highly reciprocal, possibly because this type of behavior is naturally reinforced in the child's environment. Walker also reports that greater generalization/maintaince occurs with improved social behavior than with academic behavior, again possibly because of the reciprocal positive reactions by peers.

Lobitz and Burns (1977) conducted a study to determine how a step-wise behavior modification program could be implemented in an elementary classroom. Methods progressed from those which were less intrusive to those which were more intrusive. The research involved one fourth grade male (B) who was labeled as the most disruptive student in the class. The least intrusive procedure was teacher attention, "I am going to pay special attention to how well you're concentrating." Using this procedure, the student's off-task behavior decreased from a baseline of 55% to 66% to a mean of 37%. The next level involved private feedback, in which the teacher informed the student of her rating of his on-task behavior and wrote it on a card on his desk. Off-task behavior remained at 58%, about the same as during baseline. Public feedback involved the teacher announcing to the class that she would be doing something to help B concentrate better. She then announced her ratings to the whole class rather than just to B. Off-task behavior dropped to 15% and was maintained at this rate for the six days the procedure was used. Although this was a very limited study it does demonstrate that rather inobtrusive behavior modification techniques can be used by regular class teacher without the use of tokens or back-up reinforcers.

Four generalization techniques suggested by Lira and White (1978) are:

1. To gradually replace immediate artificial reinforcers with those reinforcers which will support appropriate behavior in the discharge (reintegration) setting. These may include social reinforcers and extra privileges which are available in the natural environment. For adolescents, they recommend moving toward "real world" reinforcers such as pay checks, positive feedback from employers and coworkers. The goal is delayed reinforcement and transition to a leaner, less systematic reinforcement system.

2. To emphasize behaviors which will be supported after discharge (reintegration). Only those behaviors which will be reinforced after training should be taught. Those behaviors include such things as leadership skills, development of a sense of responsibility, development of a sense of pride in self and in ones work, development of self-control, and interpersonal communication skills.

3. To introduce parents and relatives as "treatment agents." The advantages of this approach are: there is a saving of professional time, trained parents are attuned to desirable behavioral changes, and training parents increases their ability to handle and possibly prevent behavior difficulties in the future.

4. To encourage the child's active participation in discharge (reintegration) planning. This arrangement enhances the child's independence and ability to make decisions.

Three techniques for fostering generalization/maintainence were the focus of a study of generalization across settings and time (Walker and Buckley, 1972).

1. Peer reprogramming was designed so that the subject's peer group supported his attempts at appropriate social and academic behavior and ignored incompatible behaviors. The subject was to earn a predetermined number of points which were then exchanged for a group activity.

2. Equating stimulus conditions was a strategy designed to facilitate maintainance by establishing common stimulus elements between the regular and special class setting. Primary maintainance strategies were systematic social reinforcement, token reinforcement, and use of academic materials the student had used in the special classroom.

In both instances, written instructions were designed for the regular classroom teacher to use in implementing the maintainence strategy.

3. Teacher training was the third strategy utilized. The teacher was provided with training in behavior modification techniques. With this strategy, it is necessary to monitor and maintain the teacher's behavior as well as the student's.

The peer reprogramming technique resulted in the most stable daily appropriate behavior rate (77%). The stability of behavior in the equating stimulus conditions (74%) and teacher (69%) training groups was approximately equal. Peer reprogramming required the least amount of staff time and gave the most effective results. Equating stimulus conditions required a great deal more time and materials.

The researchers noted variable rates of appropriate behavior for all groups for the first four days. They concluded that some sort of adaptation effect ssociated with reintegration may be expected.

Koegel and Reincover (1977) experimented with assessment of scheduling effects and assessment of the effect of noncontingent reinforcement in the extra-therapy environment. When examining scheduling effects, they thinned the reinforcement schedule from CRF (every correct response reinforced) to RF2, and to FR5. They found that the thinner the reinforcement schedule during treatment, the more extra therapy responding from the three autistic subjects. When assessing the non-contingent reinforcement, non-contingent reinforcers were periodically presented. Initially, extra therapy responding occured after presentation of a non-contingent reinforcer but eventually no responding could be produced. A thinner reinforcement schedule produced the more durable result.

Lovaas, Koegel, Simmons, and Long (1973) in a study of treatment effects on autistic children found stimulus generalization to be an important factor. Children who returned home after treatment to parents who had learned management techniques did not regress as did those children who went to a new environment. They emphasize providing a smooth transition between treatment and non-treatment environments.

Conclusion

Research would seem to indicate that the following principles be incorporated in programming for generalization and maintaince of behavioral gains in the reintegration setting.

1. While the student is in the BD classroom, emphasize behavior change which will be supported in the regular classroom.
2. Program for provision of stimuli in the BD classroom which are similar to those in the regular classroom.
3. Utilize systematic fading to implement a lean reinforcement schedule before reintegrating a student.
4. Make a transition to readily available reinforcers (e.g., social) which are not dependent on back-up or token reinforcers.
5. Train parents, teachers, and possibly the student's peer group in behavior modification techniques. This requires motivation to expend considerable time and effort.

FOLLOW-UP OF REINTEGRATED STUDENTS

Reintegration is usually viewed as a gradual process, with continuation of it based on successful performance by the student while in the regular classroom and maintaince of appropriate behavior in the special classroom. Evaluation of reintegrated students serves a number of purposes in addition to helping determine if reintegration should continue.

Evaluation of reintegrated students:

1. Demonstrates the continued involvement of the special class personnel.

2. Provides a vehicle for the regular class teacher to report problems or successes.

3. Makes the student aware that regular and special class teachers are concerned about what happens in the regular classroom.

4. Can be used to graphically show the student that he/she is succeeding by using daily or weekly reports.

5. Can be used as an objective means to determine when to increase or decrease time in the regular classroom or when to staff the student out of the special program.

6. Documentation of successful integration in the school where the behavior disorders class is located can help encourage the child's home school to be more receptive to his/her return there on a full-time basis in a regular classroom. Documentation may include records, charts, and follow-up reports which illustrate progress in the BD classroom and in the regular classroom. A direct verbal report (if possible) from the regular classroom teacher who has worked with the student will greatly influence the regular classroom teacher and principal in the student's home school.

It is important, therefore, to develop procedures for follow-up when formulating a reintegration plan. Components of the follow-up procedures to consider are:

Who will be assigned the responsibility to see to it that follow-up evaluations occur as scheduled?

What will be the format for evaluation of a student's performance when reintegrated part-time and full-time?

What will be the frequency of evaluation reports during part-time reintegration and during full-time reintegration?

Who will evaluate and report on the student's performance?

To whom will the evaluation be reported?

How will "successful reintegration" be defined?

Who is Responsible?

In answer to the first question it can be assumed from the results of one reintegration study (Peterson, et al, 1980) that in the public schools, BD teachers will have responsibility for follow-up. Of those teachers responding 52.3% indicated that they are responsible for coordinating reintegration efforts, which would include follow-up. In other cases, staff members, other than teacher, may coordinate follow-up (Weinstein, 1969; Huberty, Quirk, and Swan, 1973).

Responsibility for follow-up evaluations may vary, depending on whether the reintegration is part-time or full-time. If the student is working part-time in a regular class in a school where the special class teacher works, follow-up would most conveniently and efficiently be handled by that teacher. If the student is reintegrated full-time in his/her home school, it may be more expedient for a support staff person such as a consultant, who has a more flexible schedule, to handle the follow-up reporting.

Format and Frequency

Follow-up reports may be designed to be of primary benefit to the student, to the special class teacher or to both. Examples of several types of reporting systems are included in Appendix D.

Most follow-up reports typically include the date, subject area, the target or desired behaviors, and a place for the teacher's rating and the teacher's initials or signature.

The advantages of a daily or weekly report from the regular classroom teacher are:

> Not only does the student see how the regular classroom teacher is evaluating him, he also develops a heightened sense of responsibility from being in charge of returning the report.
>
> The special class teacher is provided with an opportunity to reinforce progress or discuss problems.
>
> The regular class teacher is provided with a system for communicating satisfaction with or concern about the student's progress.

A daily or weekly report is likely used more often when a student is reintegrated on a part-time basis.

When a student is in his/her home school full-time, follow-up reports are likely to be done less frequently and they are likely going to provide more information for the special class teacher than for the student. The report frequently is in the form of a checklist and/or open ended questions. Several examples of this type are shown in Appendix B. These reports will usually be solicited on a monthly or semi-monthly basis. Whatever the frequency, the schedule should be established prior to reintegration and then followed!

Written reports can be supplemented with phone calls, formal behavior observation, or conferences with the regular class teacher. The student and parents should be regularly asked how thing seem to be working in the regular classroom.

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Who Will Evaluate?

In most cases, reports will be done solely by the regular class teacher who is working with the student. In some cases, the special class teacher or preferably an outside observer may observe or take behavior counts.

To Whom Will Evaluations be Reported?

The person responsible for sending the report also receives the completed report from the regular class teacher. The contents should be shared with the support staff and building principal. The parents in most instances should be shown the reports or be told of the general evaluation. The decision may be to include the student in this process also. In any instance, the regular class teacher should be told who will see the reports.

Defining "Successful Reintegration:

In the case of either part-time or full-time reintegration, "successful reintegration" must be clearly defined prior to the beginning of reintegration. The definition should include a time element and the academic and/or behavior criteria for success. This criteria should reflect the goals for reintegration of that particular student. Some examples are for part-time reintegration:

> "A minimum of four weeks participation in P.E. without a fight or perceived insubordinate talk to the teacher."

> "A minimum of five weeks participation in English with all assignments and homework completed on time and voluntary participation in class discussions."

If the student meets this criteria, then reintegration into another subject area can be considered. For full-time reintegration:

> "A minimum of nine weeks participation in all fourth grade subject areas, with work completed with minimal teacher assistance and with observed positive interactions with peers."

If the student meets this criteria, then a staffing may be called to consider terminating placement in the special class.

It may be advantageous to be even more specific when writing the criteria for success.

When the definition is written, it should be made available to and agreed upon as reasonable by the teachers, parents, support staff, and in most cases the student.

In general, it is important to keep checking with the student and his parents to assess the student's attitude toward the regular class. It should also be determined whether recommendations are being followed by the regular classroom teacher. Above all, keep lines of communication open so that teachers, parents, or students feel free to express concerns.

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APPENDIX A
M. White, 1980

CLASSROOM TEACHER REPORT

Please answer the following questions regarding ____________________, who is being considered for placement in an emotional disabilities classroom. The information you provide will help us become more fully aware of the student's academic and behavioral status in your classroom. The information will also be used to assist in developing the student's Individual Educational Plan (IEP) and in evaluating progress in the special classroom.

Student's Name ______________________ School ________________ Grade __________

Teacher Completing this Report ___________________________ Date ________________

Return this report to:

____

1. What do you as a teacher feel are the child's major problems?

2. Describe the student's typical behavior in the following situations -

in the classroom:

outside the classroom:

with teachers and other adults:

with other students:

3. What intervention have you used to deal with the child's problems (successful and unsuccessful)?

4. What resource persons have you consulted to help you with this child's problems?

5. Describe the extent of parental involvement in dealing with the child's school problems.

6. What are the child's

   A. Academic strengths:

   B. Academic weaknesses:

7. What type of assistance do you feel is necessary for this child?

8. What changes must occur for the child to be able to work successfully in the regular classroom? (In light of your expectations for students)

   A. Emotionally/behaviorally:

   B. Academically:

APPENDIX A
M. White, 1980

CLASSROOM TEACHER REPORT

The following is the second part of the report you are being asked to complete regarding ______________________ who is being considered for placement in an emotional disabilities classroom. Keep in mind the child's behavior on a typical day when completing the rating form. Rate the child's behavior according to the scale below.

Please return to:

____

Teacher's Name ______________________________________ Date ______________
Grade Level ______________________ Subject Area ______________________
School __________________________ School District ____________________

Place a check in the appropriate box after each item.

Academic - Group Work

	never	rarely	sometimes	usually	always
1. Listens quietly to directions.					
2. Appears inattentive when directions are given.					
3. Refuses to listen to directions.					
4. Adds unnecessary comments when directions are given.					
5. Follows directions accurately.					
6. Volunteers information pertinent to the subject during a discussion.					
7. Has to be called on to participate in a discussion.					
8. Appears inattentive during a discussion - plays with objects, talks, etc.					
9. Refuses to participate in a discussion.					
10. Participates in group activities.					
11. Has difficulty working in a group.					

Academic - Independent Work	never	rarely	sometimes	usually	always
1. Is prepared with proper materials (paper, pencil, eraser).					
2. Can repeat or read directions for independent work.					
3. Follows direction when working independently.					
4. Begins assignment within 2 minutes of being given, no reminders.					
5. Needs reminders to start on a task.					
6. Refuses to work independently.					
7. Works quietly on assignments.					
8. Does things to distract others during independent work time.					
9. Asks for help when needed.					
10. Asks for help an excessive amount of time.					
11. Accepts help.					
12. Daydreams during independent work.					
13. Wanders around room instead of working.					
14. Keeps trying, even when work is difficult.					
15. Finishes assignments on time.					
16. Returns homework assignments on time.					
17. Has difficulty working independently.					
Behavior					
1. Follows classroom rules and routines.					
2. Follows school rules on playground.					
3. Follows school rules in lunchroom.					
4. Follows school rules in hallway/bathroom.					
5. Manages own behavior.					
6. Becomes easily frustrated.					

	never	rarely	sometimes	usually	always
7. Expresses anger inappropriately/unpredictably.					
8. Swears or uses unacceptable words.					
9. Appears anxious or worried.					
10. Has trouble finding things to do with self.					
11. Expresses a strong dislike for school.					
12. Is rewarded by attention (for whatever reason).					
13. Is rewarded simply by getting a task done.					
14. Is rewarded by activity experiences (e.g. games, coloring, puzzles).					
15. Is rewarded by praise from significant persons.					
16. Is rewarded by the satisfaction of learning new facts and skills.					
Interaction With Teacher					
1. Is positive and friendly.					
2. Tries to be manipulative.					
3. Is antagonistic and uncooperative.					
4. Avoids interaction with teacher.					
5. Is rewarded by praise and attention from the teacher.					
Interaction With Peers					
1. Gets along well with others in general.					
2. Avoids interaction with others.					
3. Gets along well with others on the playground.					
4. Respects the rights and property of others.					
5. Fights with others.					
6. Tries to bully others.					
7. Is dependent on praise and attention from others.					

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APPENDIX B
M. White, 1980

RESPONSIBILITIES IN FACILITATING REINTEGRATION PLANS

The following listing is intended to serve as a guide in assigning responsibilities to those involved in reintegrating students from an ED classroom. Agreement should be reached among all involved in the process as to who is responsible for seeing to it that each of these tasks is completed. Setting of timelines is also desirable. In order to ensure that all are aware of the responsibilities each has been assigned, a completed copy of a form such as this could be distributed to all.

TASK	ASSIGNED TO	BY WHEN	MONOTORED BY
Placement Information			
Provide pre-placement information to ED teacher.	______	______	______
Request information from regular class teacher.	______	______	______
Provide pre-placement observation data.	______	______	______
Monitoring Progress in ED Class			
Write and update IEP.	______	______	______
Conduct observation in ED class.	______	______	______
Maintain records of academic progress.	______	______	______
Maintain records of social/emotional progress.	______	______	______
Provide information to parents.	______	______	______
Maintain contact with mental health agencies (if appropriate)	______	______	______
Send progress reports to home school.	______	______	______
Determining Readiness for Reintegration			
Provide objective evaluative data, progress reports, placement information.	______	______	______
Invite parents to meeting to discuss reintegration possibility.	______	______	______
Invite principal and/or regular class teacher.	______	______	______
Determine rationale for reintegration--social, behavioral or instructional.	______	______	______
Determine areas in which to reintegrate in relation to reasons for reintegration.	______	______	______
Write goals and recommendations for reintegration.	______	______	______

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Select the teacher and classroom. ________ ________ ________
Select date to begin reintegration. ________ ________ ________
Notify any persons affected who were not in attendance. ________ ________ ________
Select person(s) responsible for follow-up. ________ ________ ________
Select methods for follow-up. ________ ________ ________

Full time Reintegration in Home School

Contact the principal. ________ ________ ________
Set a meeting date with home school personnel. ________ ________ ________
Invite the parents to attend the meeting. ________ ________ ________
Provide information at the meeting:
  1. Successful methods and materials used in part time reintegration and in ED classroom. ________ ________ ________
  2. Type and length of involvement in the regular classroom. ________ ________ ________
  3. Child's academic and behavioral strengths and weaknesses. ________ ________ ________
  4. Evaluative reports. ________ ________ ________
  5. Written recommendations. ________ ________ ________
Decide to initiate reintegration in home school. ________ ________ ________
Write objectives for reintegration. ________ ________ ________
Select the teacher and classroom. ________ ________ ________
Set the date to begin reintegration. ________ ________ ________
Arrange for transportation changes. ________ ________ ________
Send records to the home school. ________ ________ ________
Set tentative date to staff out after successful trial reintegration. ________ ________ ________
Discuss follow-up methods and schedule with home school personnel. ________ ________ ________
Responsibility for follow-up. ________ ________ ________

Follow-Up

Provide follow-up report for regular class teacher as scheduled. ________ ________ ________
Schedule informal contacts between written follow-up report times. ________ ________ ________
Inform the regular class teacher who should be contacted if problems arise. ________ ________ ________
Set date for staffing student out of the ED program after successful reintegration. ________ ________ ________
Share follow-up information with parents and principal. ________ ________ ________

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MAINSTREAMING CONTRACT*

Name ______________________ Date ______________________

		Period							
GOAL	G	1	2	3	A	L	4	5	Average
1. To complete assignments daily demonstrating at least 80% accuracy. MATH									
LANGUAGE ARTS									
OTHER ACADEMIC, ELECTIVE COURSES									
2. To remain on task until completion									
3. To complete homework daily									
4. To respond appropriately to authority figures.									
5. To respect space and property of others									
6. To demonstrate appropriate reaction to anger and frustration.									
7. To be in the right place									
8. To follow directions without delay									
9. Additional goals:									

3 - Goal met most of the time

2 - Goal met some of the time

1 - Goal met rarely or never

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*From: Ledeber, J. & Azzara, C., Mainstreaming for emotionally disturbed students. A paper presented at the International Council for Exceptional Children Convention, 1980.

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APPENDIX D
M. White, 1980

FOLLOW-UP REPORT

Please complete the following rating and questions regarding ________________ who is enrolled in your class for at least part of the school day. You are being asked to complete this information so that it may be determined how well the student is adjusting to the regular classroom and to determine if additional support services are needed to assist in making this transition. Thank you for your cooperation.

Please return to:

____

Teacher's Name ______________________ Date ______________
Grade Level ______________ Subject Area ______________
School ______________ School District ______________

Place a check in the appropriate box after each item.

Academic - Group Work

	never	rarely	sometimes	usually	always
1. Listens quietly to directions.					
2. Appears inattentive when directions are given.					
3. Refuses to listen to directions.					
4. Adds unnecessary comments when directions are given.					
5. Follows directions accurately.					
6. Volunteers information pertinent to the subject during a discussion.					
7. Has to be called on to participate in a discussion.					
8. Appears inattentive during a discussion - plays with objects, talks, etc.					
9. Refuses to participate in a discussion.					
10. Participates in group activities.					
11. Has difficulty working in a group.					

	never	rarely	sometimes	usually	always
Academic - Independent Work					
1. Is prepared with proper materials (paper, pencil, eraser).					
2. Can repeat or read directions for independent work.					
3. Follows direction when working independently.					
4. Begins assignment within 2 minutes of being given, no reminders					
5. Needs reminders to start on a task.					
6. Refuses to work independently.					
7. Works quietly on assignments.					
8. Does things to distract others during independent work time.					
9. Asks for help when needed.					
10. Asks for help an excessive amount of time.					
11. Accepts help.					
12. Daydreams during independent work.					
13. Wanders around room instead of working.					
14. Keeps trying, even when work is difficult.					
15. Finishes assignments on time.					
16. Returns homework assignments on time.					
17. Has difficulty working independently.					
Behavior					
1. Follows classroom rules and routines.					
2. Follows school rules on playground.					
3. Follows school rules in lunchroom.					
4. Follows school rules in hallway/bathroom.					
5. Manages own behavior.					
6. Becomes easily frustrated.					

	never	rarely	sometimes	usually	always
7. Expresses anger inappropriately/unpredictably.					
8. Swears or uses unacceptable words.					
9. Appears anxious or worried.					
10. Has trouble finding things to do with self.					
11. Expresses a strong dislike for school.					
12. Is rewarded by attention (for whatever reason).					
13. Is rewarded simply by getting a task done.					
14. Is rewarded by activity experiences (e.g. games, coloring, puzzles).					
15. Is rewarded by praise from significant persons.					
16. Is rewarded by the satisfaction of learning new facts and skills.					
Interaction With Teacher					
1. Is positive and friendly.					
2. Tries to be manipulative.					
3. Is antagonistic and uncooperative.					
4. Avoids interaction with teacher.					
5. Is rewarded by praise and attention from the teacher.					
Interaction With Peers					
1. Gets along well with others in general.					
2. Avoids interaction with others.					
3. Gets along well with others on the playground.					
4. Respects the rights and property of others.					
5. Fights with others.					
6. Tries to bully others.					
7. Is dependent on praise and attention from others.					

APPENDIX D
M. White, 1980

FOLLOW-UP REPORT
PART 2

1. Did you receive recommendations for working with this student?

Yes _____ verbal No _____

_____ written

2. What support services, if any, are being provided for this student?

_____ resource room
_____ guidance counselor
_____ psychologist
_____ social worker
_____ educational strategist
_____ counseling from a community agency
_____ other

3. What adjustments, if any, are you making in classroom procedures or expectations to meet the needs of this student?

4. What strengths (academic or social/behavioral) have you seen in this student?

5. What weaknesses (academic or social/behavioral) have you seen in this student?

6. What progress has the student shown in making and maintaining friendships?

7. What changes, if any, have you noted in the child's adjustment withing your classroom?

8. Do you feel there is a need to meet with the emotional disabilities teacher and/or staff to discuss problems you are having with this student?

_____ Yes

_____ No

AN EXAMPLE OF A FOLLOW-UP INSTRUMENT

This is an example of a follow-up instrument which could easily be coordinated with a behavior modification point system in the special classroom.

The teacher would identify target behaviors for the student to demonstrate or improve while in the regular classroom. The student in some cases may also be involved in determining the behavior to emphasize.

Each time the regular class teacher notes the target behavior a + is recorded. If the student fails to demonstrate that behavior, a + is circled (⊕). If no +'s are on the chart, just record a 0.

WEEKLY FOLLOW-UP

+ points gained

⊕ points lost

Name ______________________

Date ______________________

Behavior	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
1. ________					
2. ________					
3. ________					
4. ________					
5. ________					
6. ________					
7. ________					
8. ________					
______ Grand Total	TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL	TOTAL

[illegible], LD Teacher, AEA 7

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TEACHER CHECKLIST*

Name of Teacher: ______________________________ Class: ______________

Name of Student: ______________________________ Period: ______________

Academic	Every Day	Some-times	Rarely
1. Student pays attention during class discussions			
2. Student seems to understand work			
3. Assignments in class are completed			
4. Homework assignments are completed			
Behavior			
1. Student relates positively with peers			
2. Student relates positively to authority figures			
3. Student demonstrates appropriate reaction (to anger and frustration).			

Comments

Remediation Requested

Conference Requested

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*From: [illegible] & Azzara, C., Mainstreaming for emotionally disturbed students. A

MAINSTREAMING EVAULATION*

Class____________________

Teacher____________________________________

Date ____________________

Student____________________________________

Academic Area	Every Day	Sometimes	Rarely
1. Student pays attention during class discussions			
2. Student seems to understand work			
3. Assignments in class are completed			
4. Homework assignments are completed			
5. Student participates in class			
6. Student comes to class with books and materials			
7. Student asks appropriate questions when needs help			
8. Strengths ____________________			
9. Weaknesses____________________			
Behavioral Area			
10. Student relates positively to peers			
11. Student relates positively to authority figures			
12. Student follows directions			
13. Student demonstrates appropriate reaction to anger and frustration			

14. Strengths ______________________________

15. Weaknesses______________________________

16. Was the student academically prepared for your class when he entered?

17. If not, what areas caused him the most difficulty?____________________

18. What is your assessment of the student's academic progress in your class?

19. Was the student behaviorally prepared for your class when he entered? __________

20. If not, what areas caused him the most difficulty?____________________

21. What is your assessment of the student's behavioral progress in your class?

---

*From: Ledeber, J. & Azzara, C., Mainstraiming for emotionally disturbed students. A paper presented at the International Council for Exceptional Children Convention, 1980.

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Evaluation of classroom effort
and/or behavior of:

Student ______ Date ______

Note:

Per	Good	Acceptable	No Credit
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			

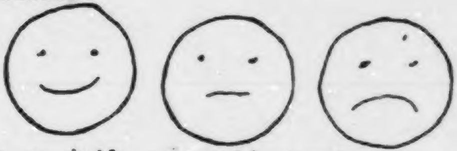
FRONT

TRY THIS

List target behavior for a particular student while in regular class at top of card or chart.

Teachers initial or have seperate one for each teacher.

Can use smiley faces for primary students.



Use on daily or weekly basis.

BACK

Programming for the Emotionally Disabled Elementary Student *

Teachers who have taught for years or who are just beginning new, need models to adopt, tear apart, compare to, or to say, "Hey, my programs far superior." Essentially, that is the intent of this paper. Hopefully, we'll give you some idea from which to build or remodel your program.

Our overall concern in programming for the emotionally disabled child is to ready him/her for reintegration into the regular classroom. In "readying" the child, a program should be designed to socialize for peer survival, guide through increasing stages of environmental demands, and erase academic defiencies.

This format does not intend to discuss academic materials, counseling techniques, room design, child identification nor progress evaluation. Basically, it hopes to present a behavior management program that is unique. The proposed program is based on the following assumptions:

1. Removing emotionally disabled children from the mainstream of the regular classroom can be beneficial for a period of time.
2. The continual purpose of the E.D. room is to ready the child for reintegration on a partial basis at the end of one academic year.
3. A child needs constant feedback as to his behavior improvement and its relationship to the eventual goal of integration.
4. A child can be satisfied with behavior feedback without the need of immediate token reinforcement.
5. An emotionally disabled child goes through phases of adjustment in understanding his own behavior needs.

*From a paper by David Sodac, Emotional Disabilities Consultant, AEA 9 at the Third Annual ED/CD Midwest Conference. November 13, 1980

Pre- Planning

Prior to an intake staffing, a behavior checklist should be filled out by the "giving" regular classroom teacher. This completed checklist will attempt to focus in on the specific behavior concerns of the teacher. This completed checklist will in no way assist in identifying an emotionally disabled student, but pinpoint undesirable behaviors to be extinguished. It shoud be analyzed as a checklist of behaviors to remediate prior to attempting reintegration. This undesirable behavior will become the focal point of the Phase Program management system. Attempt to zero in on five of the most significant behavior concerns the "giving" teacher has expressed.

An example: Arranging the use of the *__Devereaux Elementary School Behavior Rating Scale__*, *the "giving" teacher might have indicated the following as areas of most concern to her:*

1) *Prone to blame the teacher, the test, or external circumstances when things don't go well.*
2) *Unable to change from task to task without getting upset.*
3) *Makes irrelevant remarks during discussions and tasks.*
4) *Interferes with the work of his peers in class.*
5) *Slow to complete his work.*

These now become the target behaviors to rechannel, extinguish, remediate or camoflauge. If these areas are improved, the "giving" teacher will be more willing to accept the child back into the room and the integration goal becomes more attainable. The above 5 behavior concerns will be weaved into a point card program in __varying stages__ the child can handle. This point becomes the focus of the Phase Program.

During the child's intake staffing, these five identified behaviors should be rewritten for the desirable outcomes and stated as long term objectives on the individual education plan (94-142).

PHASE I. "The Retreating Stage"

The child is staffed into the program and begins an approximate 2 week period to both climatize him to the demands and routines of the special class and give him an environment in which to recamp his emotional concerns.

He begins with the general point system which specifies expected task behaviors for good study habits all students need. These behaviors are:

1) In seat.
2) Prepared for task.
3) Begins task when instructed.
4) Quiet during task.
5) Completion of task on time.

The class day is broken into essentially 8-task periods approximately 1/2 hour in length. The expected behaviors are attached to the child's desk on an index card as a reminder for both the teacher and child. A point card is daily attached to his desk. The card design is as follows:

Student______________________ **Date**________

Task	**1**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	2	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	3	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	4	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	5	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	6	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	7	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	8	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Total________

The teacher will circle the appropriate number for the realized behavior when appropriate, but within the set task period, for immediate feedback of behavior.

If the expected behavior was not realized, a slash is placed through the number on the card. At the end of the class day, the total amount of circles are counted and placed on the bottom of the card, then dated.

Student Frank Little Date 4-16-82

Task 1	①	~~2~~	③	~~4~~	~~5~~
2	①	~~2~~	~~3~~	④	⑤
3	①	~~2~~	③	~~4~~	⑤
4	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	①	~~2~~	③	④	~~5~~
6	~~1~~	~~2~~	③	~~4~~	⑤
7	①	②	~~3~~	④	~~5~~
8	①	~~2~~	~~3~~	④	~~5~~

Total 23

$$\begin{array}{r} .575 \\ 40\overline{)23.0} \\ \underline{200} \\ \underline{\overset{3}{2}88} \\ 200 \end{array} = 58\%$$

If the child has earned 75% of his possible points, he is allowed to have free time for the remainder of that day (approximately 1/2 hour). If he failed to meet the 75% criterion, he must remain in his desk and complete any work for that day and not experience free time. The points earned are recorded on a class "Point Chart"

The child must obtain 300 points to reach Phase II. He sets his own pace for this goal. If he daily receives 75% of the total possible points, he could complete the phase in two weeks. If he procrastinates, it could take him longer, but yet he sets the pace and knows exactly where he's at on the chart.

PHASE II. "The Countdown for Integration"

Once the child has obtained 300 points, the Individually Prescribed Point Program is begun. Begin to substitute the general behavior of Phase I with one or two of the pinpointed behaviors indicated from the teacher checklist discussed earlier.

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CAUTION*****

It is important to not overload the student with too difficult a program. Do it gradually.

Allow three task behaviors to be easily attainable, and two a challenge. An example based on the earlier discussed behaviors might be:

1) In seat
*2) Keeps quiet during task
3) Begins task when instructed
4) Keeps hands to himself during task
5) Completes task on time

*2) is based on behavior noted by classroom teacher on checklist "Makes irrelevant remarks during discussions and tasks."

4) is based on "Interferes with the work of his peers in class" as noted on checklist.

It is important to announce to the class that "Everett" is ready now for Phase II, he has earned the privilege by earning his 300 points. The student remains on the individualized point program in the same fashion on Phase I. He must earn 75% of total points to receive free time and he fills in his earned points on the Phase II chart. The goal is to recieve 1600 points to progress to Phase III. His maximum earning power is 40 points a day, 200 a week, 1600 in 8 weeks. Again, the child can take as long as he wants.

An important factor is to monitor the points carefully the child is receiving consistently and then to substitute that criteria with another pinpointed behavior concern.

General Comments About Phase I and Phase II:

These two phases are highly structured for the child; he is constantly being reminded of expected behaviors and reinforced for them from task to task. A student can become quite comforable with this structure. This is where most contingency management systems fail to realize the childs dependency on the

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program. This is a phase the child is required to climatize himself to structure, but we must now "wean" the student off of the structure to ready him for reintegration. By now, you will have expected the child to be aware of his unaccepted behaviors and to at least be comfortable with exhibiting appropriate acceptable behavior.

PHASE III. "The Launch for Integration"

It is very essential that you announce to the "world" that the student has earned the privilege of Phase III, send home announcements, involve the principal, make a huge fuss in general. Phase III is very difficult for a student to adjust to successfully. For the past 10-12 weeks, his tasks have been pinpointed for him. He know what was to be expected of him. Now we place the student on a more general program called the Star Sheet (an adaptation of the original star sheet devised by the program in Iowa City (see Appendix B)). Again, his day is broken into 8-task periods, but now the teacher/teacher assistant provides feedback in behavior and academic on a scale of 1 to 4. The teacher is much more subjective as to what the students performance was during that task. Johnny, your behavior rated a 3 (your work was a 2. A total score of 5 for Task #1). Require a score of 5 or above for each task, allowing for only one score of 4 or below to enable the child to experience free time at the end of the day. The child needs to know what is expected and acceptable behavior. Again, record the total earned star points on the classroom chart. Once a child becomes adjusted to the star program and has totaled 600 star points, we believe he has earned the privilege of an integration class. The goal he has been working towards since his initial placement in the program.

COMMENTS:

Throughout all three of the discussed phases, the emphasis has been on earning the right to be integrated. All the points earned have been for essentially one goal, as a measure of the students readiness for integration. You, the teacher, may be questioning the child's readiness for integration, but don't underestimate the child's internal goals. If he feels he is not ready, encourage an additional week in the classroom prior to starting integration. His behavior may not demonstrate his readiness, but through past experience, once he is in the regular classroom, he generally is quite appropriate, productive, and excited.

PHASE IV. "Integration"

The class selected for integration should be in an academically competent subject for the child to guarantee a degree of success. So select it carefully with the child. The child will continue to carry the Star Sheet with him to Integration in order to provide continuity, security, and a method of monitoring his difficulties or successes. Train the "receiving" teacher to score the Star Sheet appropriately. The combined score of 5 is the expected outcome we tell the child to work towards. A 5 indicates adequate success. The remainder of the day the child is still on the Star Sheet while in the special classroom. The total star points are no longer recorded - only the points earned during integration. Once a child earns and records 150 star points, a conference is held with the student, "receiving" integration teacher, and the special class teacher to discuss a possible second integration class.

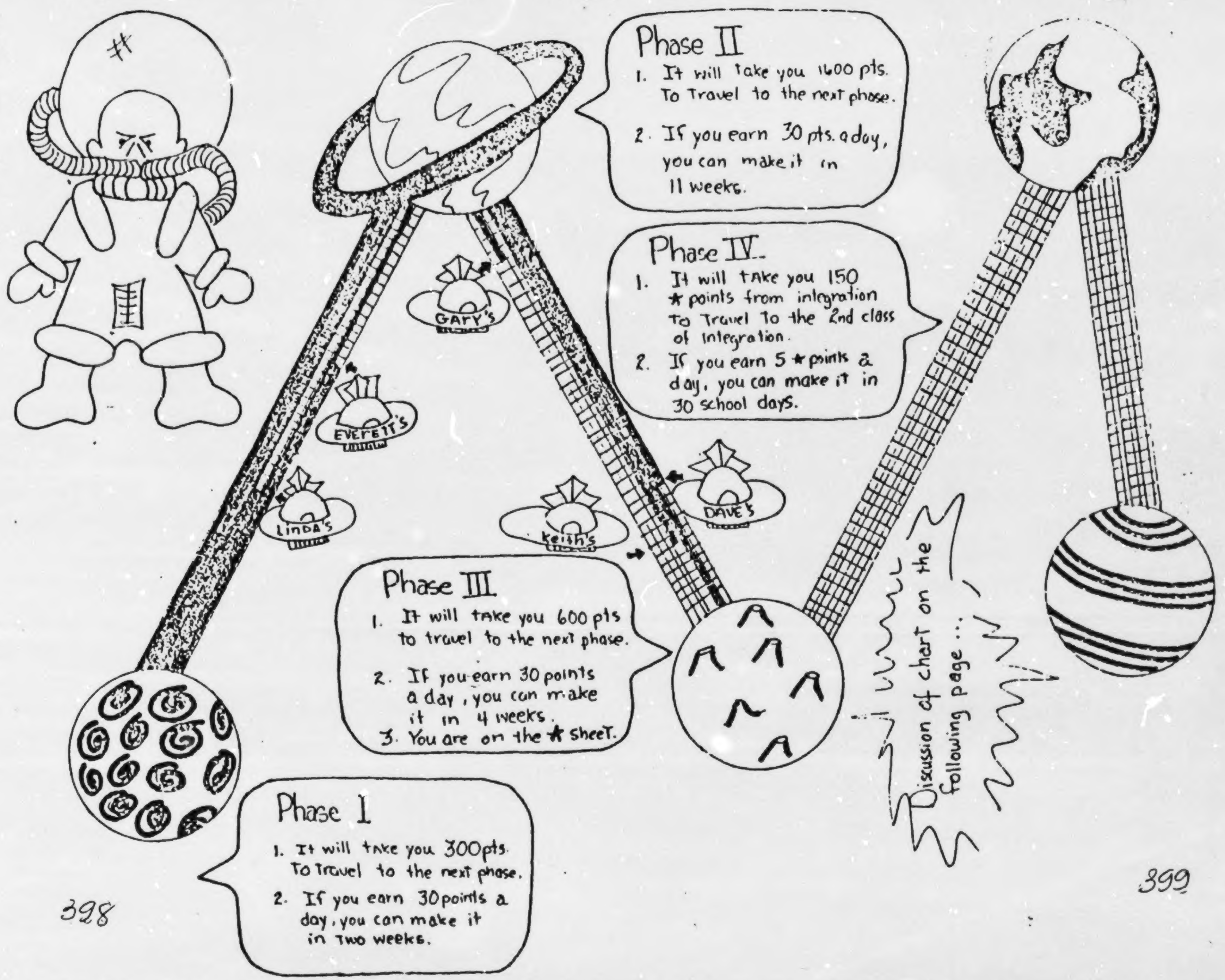
CAUTION:

If a child is having difficulty adjusting to the demands of the integration class *it becomes the perogative of the special class teacher to pull him from integration and require him to stay in the special class situation. Thus, a child must again earn the right to be integrated, by tallying 400 star points. If you feel this is too punitive, interpret his acting out in the integration class as the child's way of telling you he can't handle integration and he needs to "recamp" again.*

PHASE V. "Increased Integration"

By now, the child has proven he can handle one integration class and has earned the second class by tallying 150 total integration star points. From now on out, any future integration is totally subjective to the special class teacher. The child does not have to earn a set amount of star points for the third integration; rather, you determine his readiness. You should carefully begin to wean him off the star sheet program from the special E.D. class, leaving the monitoring system in the integration class only. If it should occur that his behavior disintegrates in the special class, without the Star Sheet, consider integrating him more into the regular classroom. He could be "telling" you that the special class is "babyish". We would rather you assume this position than the opposite viewpoint. If your interpretations is wrong, return the Star Sheet Program. From now on out, future integration and the eventual discharging from the special class becomes the total education staffing team's decision.

Appendix 'A' Class Chart



Phase II

1. It will take you 1600 pts. To Travel to the next phase.
2. If you earn 30 pts. a day, you can make it in 11 weeks.

Phase IV

1. It will take you 150 ★ points from integration To Travel to the 2nd class of Integration.
2. If you earn 5 ★ points a day, you can make it in 30 school days.

Phase III

1. It will take you 600 pts to travel to the next phase.
2. If you earn 30 points a day, you can make it in 4 weeks.
3. You are on the ★ sheeT.

Phase I

1. It will take you 300 pts. To travel to the next phase.
2. If you earn 30 points a day, you can make it in Two weeks.

Discussion of chart on the following page...

Appendix B

STAR Student's Team Activity Report

Student ______________________________ Date ____________________

Class or Activity ______________________________

X The Behavior Rating	0 Unacceptable	1 Poor	2 Average	3 Good	4 Excellent

Comments:

Signature

ACADEMIC WORK	Excellent	4
	Good	3
	Average	2
	Poor	1
	None	0

2 Class or Activity ______________________________

X The Behavior Rating	0 Unacceptable	1 Poor	2 Average	3 Good	4 Excellent

Comments:

Signature

ACADEMIC WORK	Excellent	4
	Good	3
	Average	2
	Poor	1
	None	0

3 Class or Activity ______________________________

X The Behavior Rating	0 Unacceptable	1 Poor	2 Average	3 Good	4 Excellent

Comments:

Signature

ACADEMIC WORK	Excellent	4
	Good	3
	Average	2
	Poor	1
	None	0

4 Class or Activity ______________________________

X The Behavior Rating	0 Unacceptable	1 Poor	2 Average	3 Good	4 Excellent

Comments:

Signature

ACADEMIC WORK	Excellent	4
	Good	3
	Average	2
	Poor	1
	None	0

5 Class or Activity ______________________________

X The Behavior Rating	0 Unacceptable	1 Poor	2 Average	3 Good	4 Excellent

Comments:

Signature

ACADEMIC WORK	Excellent	4
	Good	3
	Average	2
	Poor	1
	None	0

6 Class or Activity ______________________________

X The Behavior Rating	0 Unacceptable	1 Poor	2 Average	3 Good	4 Excellent

Comments:

Signature

ACADEMIC WORK	Excellent	4
	Good	3
	Average	2
	Poor	1
	None	0

7 Class or Activity ______________________________

X The Behavior Rating	0 Unacceptable	1 Poor	2 Average	3 Good	4 Excellent

Comments:

Signature

ACADEMIC WORK	Excellent	4
	Good	3
	Average	2
	Poor	1
	None	0

8 Class or Activity ______________________________

X The Behavior Rating	0 Unacceptable	1 Poor	2 Average	3 Good	4 Excellent

Comments:

Signature

ACADEMIC WORK	Excellent	4
	Good	3
	Average	2
	Poor	1
	None	0

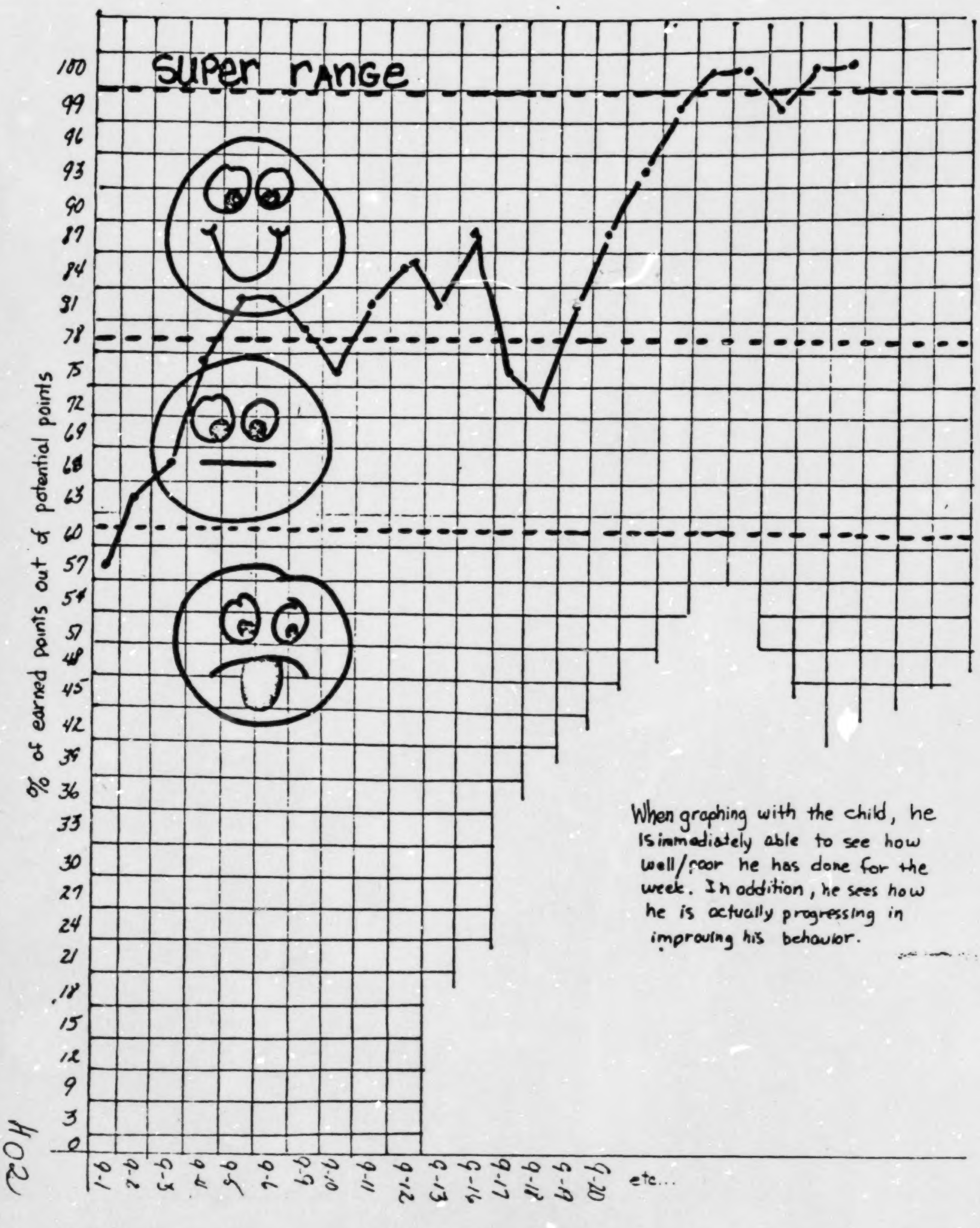
Parent Information

Signature ______________________________
I reviewed this form today

Points	Behavior	
	Academic	
	Bonus	
	Penalties	

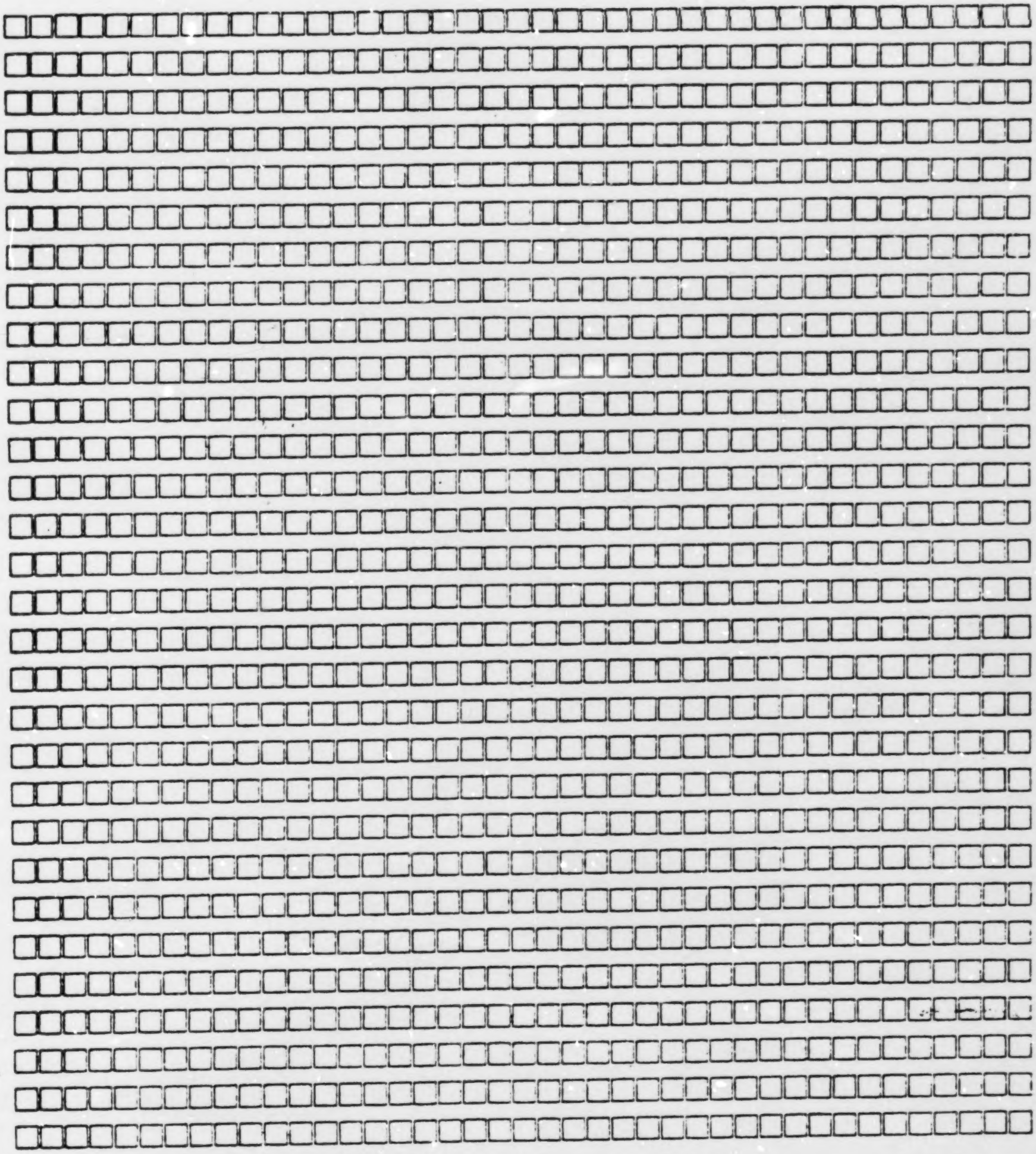
Appendix "C"

Student's Graph of Earned Points



When graphing with the child, he is immediately able to see how well/poor he has done for the week. In addition, he sees how he is actually progressing in improving his behaviour.

Appendix "D"



These squares may be reproduced on a xerox type machine to produce clear, clean copies for use in pasting together the class chart "runways".

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FORWARD

There is no one teaching method or alternative strategy best suited for behavior disordered students. Instead there are many methodologies which have been developed over the years for dealing with a variety of behavior problems. Strategies have been developed for particular settings and social milieus. They have come and gone in importance, but most have retained some value for certain types of students.

Perhaps the most important thing to glean form the plethora of approaches and materials is that successful intervention strategies in dealing with behavior disordered students involves alternatives. If behavior is the factor most significantly impeding adjustment and learning, then dealing with that behavior must supercede at times more traditional academic concerns. This requires flexibility and willingness to implement new and innovative strategies. The purpose of this section is to look at some of the strategies that have been and are being used with some degree of success. Although some of these models are not directly designed for public school settings, the ideas can be adapted for classroom use.

Another important consideration when thinking about teaching alternative areas is to look at instruction in the areas of sex education, vocational education, drug education, and life coping skills. Although these are important in the academic planning for any student, they become especially important in the planning for a behavior disordered student who may lack the ability to perceive social situations and act in a responsible way.

A list of resources is included in this area that are available through Keystone AEA 1. This is in no way a complete listing. To obtain more resources, please consult the catalogues available through the Keystone AEA. Some possible topics to investigate further include:

Drug education
Assertiveness training
Micro teaching
Open classroom
Individualized education
Competency based curricula
Sex education
Team teaching student directed curriculum
Peer tutoring
Contracting
Programmed instruction
Learning centers
Study skills, test taking skills

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Resources

The Engineered Classroom

Project CASA

An Eclectic Approach to the Education of Emotionally Disturbed Children

Instructional Modifications

The SQ3R Study/Reading Method

Cross Age Tutoring

Faculty Adoption

Mercy Day

RESOURCES

American Guidance Service
- 10 Worktexts, 1 Worktext Teacher's Edition - How To Study, Senior High, 1959

Anchor Book Company
- 1 Professional Reference - Alternative Education, 1976

Argus Communication
- Programmed Study Technique
- How to Study Text Booklets

Behavior Products
- Peer Tutoring Process

Cedar Rapids College Community Schools
- 9 Curriculum Guides - Survival Skills, 1978

Curriculum Associates
- 7 Workbooks, 1 Workbook Teacher's Edition - Following Directions - Advanced, Intermediate, Junior High, 1979

Edmark
- Alternative Teaching Strategies
- A Curriculum Model for Individuals with Severe Learning and Behavior Disorders

Ideal School Supply
- English for Everyday Living

Little Kenny Publications, Inc.
- Consumer Survival Series
- 1 Workbook - Installment and Credit Buying Senior High, 1977
- 1 Workbook - Find a Job, Senior High, 1977
- 1 Workbook - Telephone and Reference Books, Senior High, 1977
- 1 Workbook - Graph Reading, Senior High, 1977

Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation
- Fastback Series
- 4 Professional References - Bibliotherapy: The Right Book at the Right Time, 1980

Project STILE
- 1 Curriculum Guide - Learning How to Learn (For Teaching Strategies to LD Adolescents), 1979

Research Press
- Improving Study and Homework Behaviors

Scholastic
- Real Life Consumer Economics Unit
- Real Life Citizenship Unit
- Scholastic Go: Reading in Content Areas
- Scope Visuals
- 1 Duplicating Masters - Following Directions (RL 4-6), Junior High, Senior High, 1971
- 1 Duplicating Masters - Observation Skills (RL 4-6), Junior High, Senior High, 1969

Special Education Curriculum Development Center
- 1 Training Reference - Classroom Interest Centers, 1971
- 1 Training Reference - Social and Sexual Development, 1971

Steck-Vaughn Company
- Thinking and Reasoning by Barnes

AREA: Progammatic Approaches
SOURCE: Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1

THE ENGINEERED CLASSROOM:

A Developmental Strategy for Educating Children With Maladaptive Behavior

PHILOSOPHY

Hewett views the emotionally disturbed child as a socialization failure. Underneath the many terms and labels used by various disciplines to describe him lies the implication that his behavior, for whatever reason, is maladaptive according to society's expectations. Although Hewett's writings and book use the widely accepted term "emotionally disturbed", he feels this term has little pragmatic value in the classroom setting. He prefers to describe the population he serves as children with "maladaptive behavior". To Hewett, this term includes the positive implication that teachers can modify this behaivor as opposed to the term "emotionally disturbed" which implies "sick" or "effective" patients who require psychiatric or medical treatment before teaching can begin.

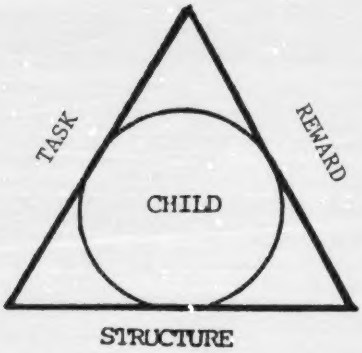
The Engineered Classroom plan was developed out of a need for an effective educational program emphasizing both goals and methodology which could be implemented readily in the public schools. Rabinow (1955) provided Hewett with the guidelines for selecting the goals:

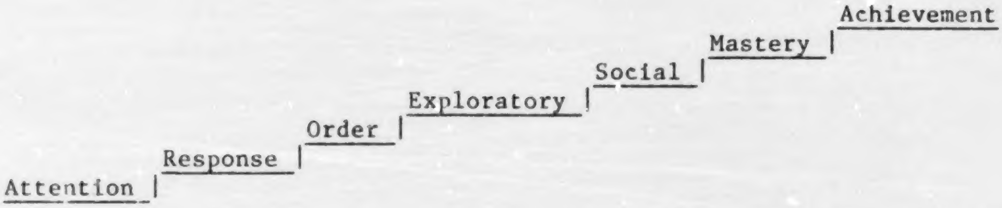
1. The school is not one school, but many schools; in the final analysis it is for each child a different school.
2. What may be taught is only what the child is ready to learn and despite apparent uneducability, all children are ready to learn something.
3. Normal children on entering school already have had a childhood which has prepared them for the culture of the school; for most of our (emotionally disturbed) boys and girls this is not so. The teacher and other staff become the primary persons, the people on whom the youngsters may build new concept of worthwhile life; they incorporate our goals and purposes for them and through us, somewhat late, get ready for school while attending school.
4. It is possible to do a tremendous amount of individualization if the adult really believes in it; the youngsters catch on to the greater justice of different right things for everybody rather than the same things for all.

The methodology for implementing these goals is based upon behavioral techniques which provide a setting for a developmental hierarchy of educational tasks, meaningful rewards for learning, and an appropriate degree of structure.

INTERVENTION

Hewett sought a strategy which could be implemented in its pure form in the public school classroom and achieve widespread success. His strategy is based upon an educational framework to replace previous frameworks borrowed from other disciplines. The Learner Triangle and Developmental Sequence create an environment for the engineered classroom which is derived "pragmatically not rigidly" from behavior modification. These aspects of the program are pictured below.





The Learner Triangle represents the three necessary components for successful teaching: selection of a suitable educational task for the child, provision of a meaningful reward following accomplishment of that task, and maintenance of a certain amount of structure.

The selection of suitable tasks is guided by the use of the Developmental Hierarchy which includes development of an adequate attention span; orderly responses in the classroom; the ability to follow directions; tolerance for limits of time, space and activity; accurate exploration of the environment, and appreciation for social approval and avoidance of disapproval.

The development of these skills in a positive learning environment which provides rewards and structure in accord with the principles of empirical learning theory forms the basic mode of intervention for Hewett's Engineered Classroom.

TYPES OF CHILDREN SERVED

At the time of publication of the article "Educational Engineering With Emotionally Disturbed Children", Exceptional Children, 1967, 33, 459-467, two types of children had been enrolled in experimental engineered classrooms: (1) public school children having difficulties in adjusting to school and/or profiting from instruction from the Santa Monica and Tulare school districts in California and the Palolo School District in Oahu, Hawaii, and (2) emotionally disturbed children hospitalized on the Children's Service of the UCLA Neuropsychiatric Institute. The public school children were identified as educationally handicapped (underachieving due to emotional, neurological, or learning disability factors) and were functioning within a Full Scale IQ range of 85 - 113. The majority of this group were boys who exhibited problems on the first five levels of the developmental sequence including conduct disturbances, neurotic traits including school phobia, psychosomatic and borderline psychotic problems as well as minimal neurological impairment. The hospital group included the more serious emotional problems and included psychotic and more markedly neurologically impaired. The students ranged in age from 8 to 12.

Although Hewett clearly developed his program for the child with maladaptive behavior, he strongly feels that an effective educational strategy for E.D. Children must also be effective with all other exceptional children. Such relevance has become increasingly apparent by its widespread use with other exceptionalities.

LENGTH OF STAY

Although Hewett does not directly indicate an average length of stay for the children in his program, duration would somewhat be determined by the inherent restrictions imposed by regular public school operations as well as the goals of his strategy.

The research on the original Santa Monica Project was based upon the normal nine-month school year. However it would appear that the length of stay would largely be based upon the student's progression up through the developmental sequence with discharge dependent on the child's ability to function as a "student" at the mastery and achievement levels.

GROUPING

In the original study (Santa Monica Project) 54 children were grouped into six classroom of 9 students each based on IQ, age, and reading and math levels. The variable of sex was not possible to control due to the small number of girls referred to the program. Some attempt was made to place children in or near their neighborhood school when at all possible. The mean IQ for all six groups was 94, mean age 10 years 3 months, mean reading achievement level was 2.8 grade equivalent (range 0-6.2) and mean math achievement level 3.3 (range 0-5.2).

Control of the above variables in grouping was an important part of the research design which sought to answer the following questions:

1. What is the effect of rigid adherence to the engineered classrrom design and use of a token and tangible reward system on educationally handicapped children who previously have been in a regular class?

2. What is the effect of rigid adherence to the engineered classroom design and use of a token and tangible reward system on educationally handicapped children who previously have been in a small individualized class which did not use such a reward system?

3. What will be the effect of abruptly withdrawing the complete engineered classroom design including the reward system from a class of educationally handicapped children which has been accustomed to it?

REFERRAL

The children in the Santa Monica Project had been referred by elementary school principals throughout the district and met the requirements for an EH classroom:

> Educationally handicapped minors, other than physically handicapped minors . . . or mentally retarded minors . . . who, by reason of marked learning or behavioral problems or a combination thereof, cannot receive the reasonable benefit of ordinary education facilities.

In addition to intelligence testing, physical examinations were given to eliminate the possibility of physically handicapping conditions. After the students were designated as "educationally handicapped" testing essential to the research was also completed (CAT and WRAT etc.)

PERSONNEL

Teachers for each of the six classrooms were selected from the new teaching applicants of the school district. All were new to the Santa Monica district and teaching experience ranged from 0-8 years. Selection was made on the basis of strong qualifications and willingness to participate in a project with EH children. Two additional teachers were selected solely to conduct demonstrations, visitation, and innovation (these were not part of the experiment). Eight teacher aides without any prior teaching experience were also selected. All teachers and aides participated in a 2-week training program to acquaint them with the developmental strategy and the engineered classroom design. At the close of the training, random drawing determined the placement of teachers and aides in an experimental or control classroom - one teacher and one aide in each class of 9 EH students.

EDUCATION

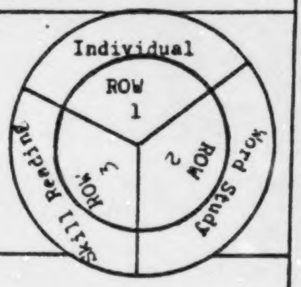
The Engineered Classroom was designed purely as an educational program. Despite the 19 or 20 hours emotionally disturbed children must spend outside of school each day, often in deplorable surroundings and malignant family relationships, Hewett is convinced that six hours of positive hours in the classroom can make a significant difference in their lives.

OTHER KINDS OF TREATMENT

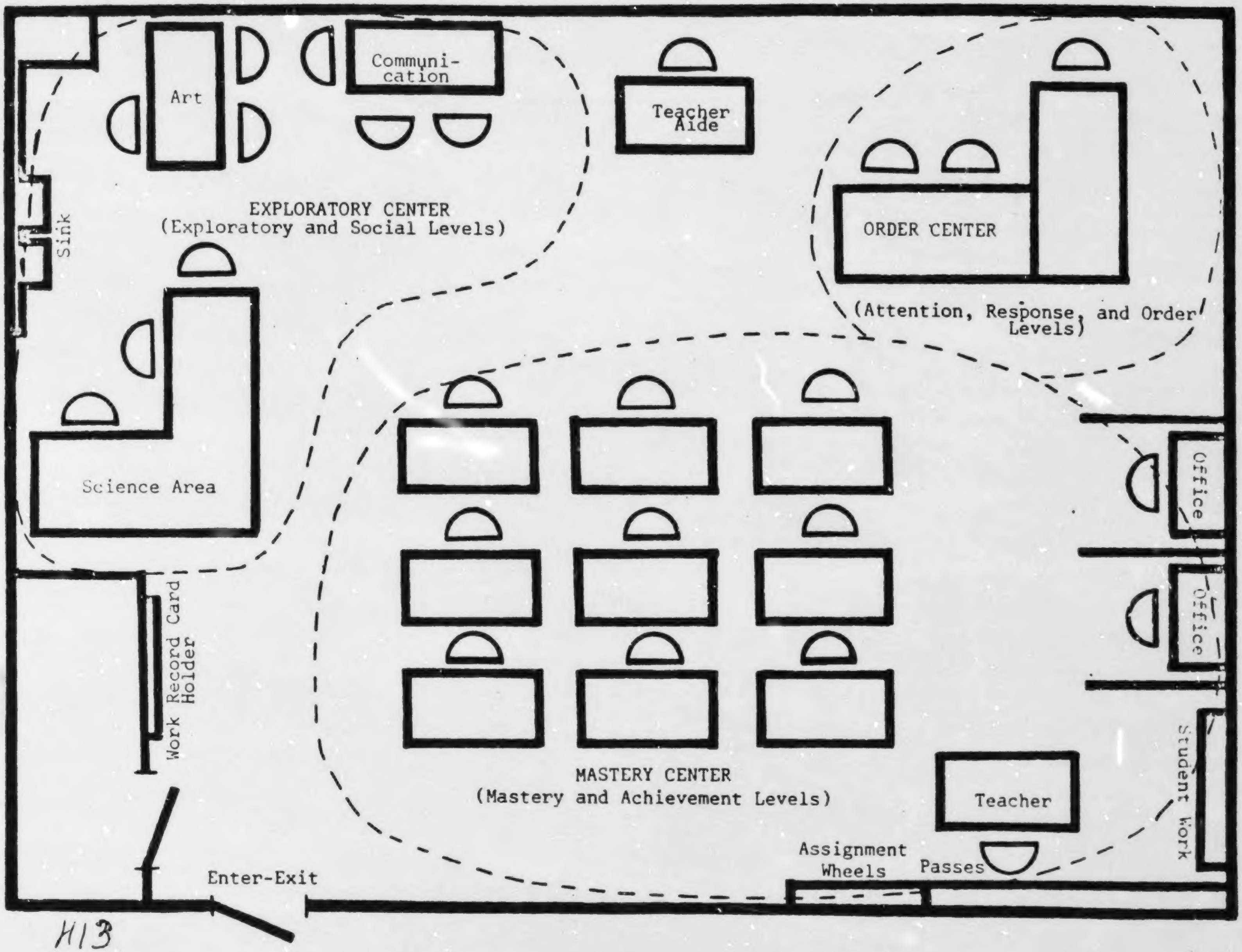
Hewett's program does not include emphasis on ancillary personnel. However, not using such personnel doesn't dismiss their importance, but instead clarifies the intent to deal practically with the classroom aspect of working with ED children.

ENGINEERED CLASSROOM
DAILY SCHEDULE

Time			
8:45	ORDER	Flag Salute Order Task	Checkmarks for arriving and entering
9:00	READING	Individual Reading	Checkmarks
		Word Study	Checkmarks
		Skill Reading	Checkmarks
10:10		RECESS	
10:25	ARITHMETIC		Checkmarks
		Individual Practice in Basic Facts	Checkmarks
		Individual Arithmetic	Checkmarks
		Arithmetic Instruction	
11:25			Checkmarks
		PHYSICAL EDUCATION	
11:50			Checkmarks
		LUNCH	
12:30			Checkmarks
		Listening Time (Read to Class)	
12:50	EXPLORATORY	Art Science Communication Order — Students divided into two groups. One group goes with teacher to a center while the other group is with an aide. The groups rotate through two of the four centers utilizing 25 minute periods.	Checkmarks Activity Period Checkmarks Activity Period
1:50			Checkmarks
		RECESS	
2:00			Checkmarks
		Phonics - Handwriting - Language Instruction	
3:00			Checkmarks



HEWETT'S CLASSROOM DESIGN for EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED CHILDREN


Art
Communi-cation
Teacher Aide
Sink
EXPLORATORY CENTER
(Exploratory and Social Levels)
ORDER CENTER
(Attention, Response, and Order Levels)
Science Area
Office
Office
Work Record Card Holder
MASTERY CENTER
(Mastery and Achievement Levels)
Teacher
Student Work
Assignment Wheels
Passes
Enter-Exit

H13

H14

DISCIPLINE AND PUNISHMENT

Changing maladaptive behavior patterns is done in accordance to behavior modification principles. This is done basically through manipulation of assigned tasks, provisions for success and rewards. The emphasis of the strategy is to keep every child functioning as a "student" on some level of the developmental sequence. Emphasis is on prevention of behavior which might ordinarily require disciplining or punishment. In order to help the students continue to be successful and earn checkmarks, a series of interventions must often be used to alter the environment including the nature of the assignment, type of reward, and degree of structure. The interventions descent the developmental hierarchy and are as follows:

HIERARCHY OF INTERVENTIONS TO MAINTAIN STUDENT ROLE

LEVEL	STUDENT INTERVENTIONS
1. Mastery	a. Assign student to study booth to pursue mastery work. b. Modify mastery assignment and have student continue at desk or in study booth.
2. Social	Verbally restructure expectation of student role (e.g., respect working rights of others, accept limits of time, space, activity).
3. Exploratory	Remove mastery assignment and reassign to Exploratory Center for specific science, art, communication activity.
4. Order	Reassign to Order Center for specific direction--following task (e.g., puzzle, exercise, game, worksheet).
5. Response	Remove child from classroom and assign him to a task he likes to do and can do successfully outside (e.g., running around playground, punching punching bag, turning specific number of somersaults on lawn).
6. Attention	Remove child from classroom, put on a one-to-one tutoring relationship with teacher aide, and increase use of extrinsic motivators to obtain cooperation, attention, and student behavior.

LEVEL	NONSTUDENT INTERVENTIONS
7. Time-Out	Take away Work Record Card and explain to child he cannot earn checkmarks for a specific number of minutes which he must spend in a quiet area adjacent to class.
8. Exclusion	If the child is not able to function in time-out room, immediately suspend him from class and, if possible, send him home.

When it becomes apparent that no amount of task completion will successfully engage the student in learning, exclusion is the only resource left. "Time out" or exclusion should not carry "bad boy" connotations.

COST

The engineered classroom as organized in the Santa Monica setting is a part of a free appropriate education which is the right of all children.

The program overhead would not be significantly different from costs of similar special educational programs.

EFFECTIVENESS

In 1967, the engineered classroom design had been developed and observed in four public school systems and a hospital setting for 2 years. Preliminary observations suggest substantial changes in work efficiency and adaptive behavior. Observers were frequently impressed with the purposeful, controlled, and productive atmosphere in the classrooms. The research results of the Santa Monica Project indicated higher academic scores and task attention for the experimental groups. The program has undergone reassessment and alteration in a continual effort to derive at a practical and readily applicable model for educating ED children in the public schools.

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AREA: Programmatic Approaches
SOURCE: H. Lyndall Rich, Memphis State University. Reprinted from "Iowa Perspectives", March, 1980

An Eclectic Approach to the Education of Emotionally Disturbed Children

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H. Lyndall Rich
Memphis State University

For the past several decades special educators, particularly those concerned with educating emotionally disturbed children, have been involved in a professional controversy over "the" way to educate disturbed children. Specifically, the controversy centers around which intervention strategy - or methodological procedure - is most effective for these children.

Observation of classes for the disturbed children reveals that no one strategy can claim universal acceptance. For example, one program may rely heavily upon behavior modification, using praise, tokens, and checks for appropriate behavior. Another program may emphasize structure, including stimuli reduction, sequential cognitive activities, and cubicles. And a third program may have a psychoeducational orientation, encouraging personal interaction, positive relationships, and self-directed behaviors. Although each of these exemplary intervention strategies has merit, they are typically implemented on a unilateral and wholesale basis in each classroom regardless of the children's problems or needs.

This insistence upon employing a single intervention strategy continues even in an era of individualized educational programs for disturbed children. Fortunately, many teachers of disturbed children make adjustments. The realistic and practical demands of the classroom make it necessary to borrow bits and pieces from all the available strategies, altering the approach to fit the child or the objective or the crisis. Thus, teachers by necessity become eclectic, using the best of what is available from each intervention strategy. After all, "no one theoretical model has all the answers for educating emotionally disturbed students" (White, 1979, p. 9).

This discrepancy between dogmatic philosophy and eclectic application is a conflict between theoretical idealism and practical utilitarianism. Ideally, every intervention strategy is based upon fundamentally sound principles of methodology, human growth and development, learning, and so forth. But, when the evidence is not available, supporters of a particular strategy rely upon an intuitive belief and conviction that their philosophy is the most appropriate one.

Consequently, even teacher trainers develop programs devoted to the perpetuation of a singular orientation with minimal tolerance for alternative theories or strategies. Individually, the impact of Bernard Rimland, William Cruickshank, B.F. Skinner, Sigmund Freud, Carl Rogers and A.S. Neill, to name a few, is evident in the way prospective teachers are instructed, the books they are required to read, and the competencies they are to demonstrate. It is rare to find an operant trainer talking about self-determination or self-concept; it is equally rare to find an advocate of dynamic education talking about behavior modification or stimuli reduction.

Thus, many disturbed children who may require immediate behavioral change may be denied that opportunity because they are in a program that emphasizes freedom of choice. Similarly, a disturbed child who needs emotional support may be assigned to a cubicle or given a demerit for inappropriate behavior.

On a practical level, it is difficult to understand why special educators engage in such rigidity, accepting one strategy, excluding other strategy alternatives and possibilities. Perhaps they have *learned* that there is but one approach, or that they *feel* personally comfortable with one approach, or that they subconsciously *identify* with one approach, or they were just *born* that way. Whatever the reason(s) for perpetuating a singular program dimension, special educators can acknowledge that there is an array of programs which are cognitively and affectively different, and that disturbed children possess a variety of needs and problems.

Given this variance in both programs and children, then the conclusion must be that no single strategy is most effective for all disturbed children. Consequently, it is believed that energies would be more profitably directed if special educators sought to determine which program strategies were most effective for which disturbed students.

The remainder of this article is devoted to a procedure by which special educators may begin to make initial decisions regarding the most appropriate theoretical and practical strategies for educating individual disturbed children. This procedure recognizes the importance of all strategies, but emphasizes the strategies must be "matched" with the child in order to realize maximum potential. In short, special educators must become eclectic, selecting the best strategy or pieces of strategy from those available.

This eclectic matching procedure may be described as an aptitude-treatment or person-environment interaction model. This interaction

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Note: Portions of this article have been adapted from: H. Lyndall Rich, A Matching Model for Educating the Emotionally Disturbed and Behaviorally Disordered. Focus on Exceptional Children, 1978, 10(3), 1-11.

model emphasizes the need for congruence between learner characteristics and educational procedures in order to maximize progressive student change (Cronbach & Snow, 1977; Hunt, 1971). Recent theory constructs and research using these concepts have attempted to conceptualize school learning as a function of differential student development and methods of teaching on learning outcomes (Bloom, 1976; Joyce & Weil, 1972). Operationally, the model presumes that disturbed children functioning on lower psychological-developmental levels require controlled educational environments and concrete lower-level objectives, while children functioning on higher psychological-developmental levels require proportionately less control and higher-level objectives. Reynolds and Balow (1972) evaluated the possibilities of interaction in special education and concluded that ". . . interactions between pupil characteristics, teaching methods, and material suggest that the teacher would be more or less effective depending on the decisions he made to match the teaching system to the pupil" (p. 364).

Since there are innumerable factors that could be included in an eclectic matching model, these factors must be reduced to a relatively few critical variables that can be used to explain differences in educational outcomes. Without the use of "blinders" to enable special educators to focus, the task of matching all of the potential factors would be humanly impossible. Toward this end, the three interdependent variables central to school learning identified by Bloom (1976) will be used to outline the eclectic matching model. According to Bloom, instruction, student characteristics, and learning outcomes are the three most critical variables. Translated into the education of emotionally disturbed children, the three variables are: (1) intervention strategies, including teacher style; (2) the developmental characteristics and needs of disturbed children; and (3) the types of objectives children are to achieve.

Intervention Strategies

Although different methods of education and/or treatment have existed for centuries, these differences were not clearly defined until Morse, Cutler and Fink (1964) analyzed public school classes for the emotionally disturbed and identified seven different program types based upon consistency in procedures, goals and emphasis. Six of the program types were classified into two substrata: dynamic (psychiatric, psycho-educational and chaotic) and learning or conditioning theory (behavioral, educational and primitive). The seventh program type (naturalistic) was considered circumstantial since the program "operated on a 'green thumb' naturalistic basis without (an) organized approach or any specific design" (p. 29). The study supported the position that program types were operationally different and that types were "mutually independent."

Rhodes and Tracy (1972) later reconceptualized the Morse, Cutler and Fink (1964) program types by synthesizing the numerous theories that explained emotional disturbance. Based upon five umbrella theories of causality (biophysical, behavioral, psychodynamic, sociological, and ecological), Rhodes and Tracy proposed corresponding intervention strategies. These intervention strategies form clusters that ". . . employ the same basic methodology; . . . share a common orienting outlook; (and) . . . agree regarding basic amelioration" (pp. 2-3). Both the theories and intervention strategies are sequentially organized from ". . . the most individual and physical focus" to ". . . the most universal and complex focus" (p. 23).

These five theories of causality have been translated into intervention strategies for emotionally disturbed children. Although other disciplines such as medicine and psychiatry may often be responsible for treatment, the strategies considered here are educationally oriented. Exemplary intervention strategies, developed by recognized professionals in special education and related fields, have evolved from the theories of causality.

Theories of Causality:		**Intervention Strategies:**
1. Biophysical	→	Structured (e.g., Cruickshank) *Engineered Class (e.g., Hewett)
2. Learning-Behavioral	→	Behavior Modification (e.g., Skinner)
3. Psychodynamic	→	Psychoanalytic (e.g., Bettleheim) *Psychoeducation (e.g., Redl)
4. Sociological	→	Open Education (e.g., Kohl)
5. Ecological	→	Environmental (e.g., Rhodes) **Counter-theory (e.g., Neill)

Some intervention strategies such as those indicated with an asterick (*) use combinations of theories in the development of intervention strategies. The counter-theoretical position, on the other hand, basically rejects all theories of causality, essentially believing that children are not disturbed and that children should have programs that enable self-determination.

The space limitations of this article preclude a discussion of each theory and intervention strategy; however, more complete knowledge is necessary in order to implement the eclectic matching model. This precautionary note is added since most special educators are typically trained with a thorough knowledge of one theory and strategy, but to the

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relative exclusion of other theories and strategies which are equally valuable. Instead of strategy descriptions, an explanation of the progressive nature of the strategies will suffice to provide an orientation.

In general, both the causes and strategies follow a hierarchy from an individual, physical focus to a group, environmental focus. The sequence of the hierarchy is a logical progression from the biophysical theory of causality which is very specific and concrete to the ecological theory of causality which is global and inferred. The intervention strategies conform to a similar progressive pattern, focusing on disturbed children from an ever widening perspective. The major goal or objective of each strategy reflects this pattern; that is, the biophysical goal is physical adjustment; the learning behavioral goal is behavioral appropriateness; the psychodynamic goal is intrapersonal adjustment; the sociological goal is interactional normalcy; and the ecology goal is environmental support. Although these goals are oversimplified, they suggest basic differences in strategy approaches.

A significant component of each strategy is the characteristic manner in which the teacher fulfills the role as the instructional leader in the classroom. The characteristic role behaviors are referred to as teaching style. The construct frequently, used to describe teaching style has been ascribed to a continuum of teaching-to-student-centered behaviors. In the final analysis, this teaching style dimension can be described as representing a control continuum. Although the descriptive nomenclature may vary (e.g., authoritarian-democratic, direct-indirect, or controlled-reflective), the critical factor is the exercise of power by the teacher. "In essence, the... continuum involves the extent to which the teacher makes decisions for the child" (Kauffman & Lewis, 1974, p. 281).

Terms such as direct, dominant, and authoritarian styles are reported to be characteristic of high control approaches in which the interaction and objectives are more inclusively regulated by the teacher. Indirect, reflective, and democratic styles have been associated with low control approaches in which students assume self-regulation. Thus, low control teaching styles are characterized by a limited exercise of control and more facilitative interaction patterns.

The extent to which the teacher controls the classroom, or makes decisions for the child, correlates with the intervention strategies. For example, a structured or behavior modification strategy, which requires stringent time and behavioral schedules, measured in small hierarchical increments, is more consistent with the high control teacher style. Psychoeducational and dynamic strategies which emphasize feelings, freedom, and insight are more consistent with low control teacher styles. Thus, teaching styles, in terms of control, follow the progressive sequence established for the theories and the strategies.

Characteristics of Disturbed Children

Everyone can agree that disturbed children do not constitute a homogeneous group, even though they may possess the same "label." Terms such as autistic, hyperactive, and neurotic have been used to differentiate the disturbed population, but the overlapping and obscure characteristics continue to prevent the development of meaningful descriptors. In order to implement the strategy most appropriate for the disturbed child, a functional characteristic needs to be identified. Once identified, the interaction between the child characteristic and the strategy treatment should produce results superior to the random or unilateral application of a strategy.

As a starting point, the Rhodes and Tracy theory analysis offers definite possibilities for developing an eclectic matching model. Based upon the relationships between theories and interventions, the following child-strategy combinations provide the greatest probability of success:

If child's problem is:	**The strategy should be:**
Physical	Structured
Behavioral	Behavior Modification
Intrapersonal	Psychodynamic
Interactional	Sociological
Environmental	Ecological
Physical & Behavioral	Engineered Classroom
Intrapersonal & Interactional	Psychoeducation

Of course these strategy-child combinations do not account for all possible variance, but they are considered to be an initial point at which strategies may be more functionally employed.

A second dimension to be considered in the use of a particular strategy is that of developmental behavior. Analysis of child development theories reveals a number of consistent behavioral patterns that can be ranked on a hierarchical basis. Developmental behavior problems, in the context of this paper, are the manifestation of repeated and consistent behavior patterns which would normally appear at a different chronological age. Thus, the greater the disparity between chronological age and developmental behavior, the more severe the problem. Swap (1974) constructed a similar developmental

H19 ...

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arrangement of hierarchical behaviors by combining the models presented by Erik Erikson and Frank Hewett.

A summary compilation of the behaviors presumed from the theories, holding individual variance constant, indicates the following continuum of severity: (1) asocialized; (2) protective (withdrawal, compulsive, and dependent); (3) defining or testing (negativistic, aggressive, and assertive); and (4) independent. The four developmental behaviors, including the sub-category behaviors, represent progressive development; however, the distinction between some behaviors is relatively minor and may be a function of individual manifestation rather than severity.

Asocial behavior represents the most basic or youngest developmental behavior and is characterized by egocentricism, extraordinary impulsivity and hyperactivity. Protective behaviors are those designed to protect the individual without risking physical or psychological pain. The three subcategories of protective behavior (withdrawal, compulsive and dependent stages) are considered progressive steps from extreme to moderate protection as evidenced by a developing young child. Defining or testing behaviors are typical of children developing autonomy and initiative, and are symptomatic of a child attempting to establish individual power and identity within the limits of the social environment. Defining or testing behaviors are similarly classified into three steps of development. Independent behavior constitutes the last developmental behavior and is characterized by a child who has achieved, in accordance with developmental age, the basic needs, has a clear sense of self and others, and is rational and realistic.

Based on these developmental behaviors, the following interaction combinations are suggested:

If development behavior of the child is:	**The strategy should be:**
Asocial →	Structured
Protective	
Withdrawal →	Behavior Modification/ Engineered
Compulsive/Dependent	Psychoanalytic
Defining or Testing	
Negativistic →	Psychoeducation
Aggressive →	Open Education
Assertive →	Environmental
Independent →	Counter-theoretical

Obviously neither the theory nor developmental constructs lend themselves precisely to selecting the most appropriate strategy. Individual variance, the inadequacy of diagnosis and assessment, and imperfections in the model are just a few of the factors that restrict the adoption of this eclectic matching approach. However, this eclectic matching model does constitute a different way of conceptualizing treatment that should be tested and evaluated.

Educational Objectives

The educational objectives to be achieved by disturbed children constitute the third dimension of this eclectic approach. Educational objectives such as those identified by Bloom (1956) and Krathwohl, Bloom and Masia (1956) form progressive hierarchies of educational outcomes from basic, cognitive, and concrete objectives to advanced, affective, and abstract objectives:

Cognitive Objectives:	**Affective Objectives:**
Knowledge	Receiving/Attending
Comprehension	Responding
Application	Valuing
Analysis	Organization
Synthesis	Value Complex
Evaluation	

Given the level of the objectives, intervention strategies and teaching style have differential effects. Research indicates that the high control teacher style, such as that found in the structured and behavior modification strategies, results in greater student achievement of the lower-level objectives (Salomon & Achenbach, 1974). On the other hand, students experiencing low control teachers, such as those in the psychoeducational and open education strategies, have greater success with higher-level objectives (Scheuer, 1971). There is general agreement that high control teacher styles are more effective when the task is simple, concrete and cognitive; and that low control teacher styles are more effective when the objectives are high level, social and emotional (Anderson, 1959).

Thus, the level and type of objectives to be accomplished by disturbed children are critical in determining both the appropriate intervention strategy and teaching style. Basic objectives which are concrete and specific are more readily achieved by children in educational environments that are concrete and specific. Similarly, more advanced objectives that require abstract and affective comprehension are achieved more readily in educational environments that are abstract and affective.

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Summary

This article has attempted to present an eclectic approach to the education of emotionally disturbed children. Two primary themes have been repeatedly expressed: (1) that educators should not continue to dogmatically implement a specific strategy for all disturbed children when only a few may be benefiting; and (2) strategies, including teaching styles and objectives, must be selectively introduced to disturbed children based on projections for success.

This eclectic, matching approach is based on the belief that disturbed children functioning on the basic or lowest developmental level will require a controlled program, typical of a structured or stimuli reduced environment. The opposite extreme, the highest level of development, suggests grossly different strategies, teaching styles and objectives, facilitated in more "open," dynamic environments with indirect teachers.

Factors falling between the high and low developmental extremes would require proportionate shifts in the intervention strategy. As the child's behavior changes to a more advanced level, then the intervention strategy will need to shift accordingly. The shift may involve the phasing out of tangible rewards, the elimination of a limit, the introduction of the child to a problem-solving group, or, as Garner (1976) has suggested, combining behavior modification with feeling oriented therapy.

Educators need to facilitate the movement of the children who are functioning on the basic levels to the higher levels. Therefore, controlling programs must, in progressive steps which are consistent with the child's change, become less controlling. Structured, teacher controlled environments must evolve into more self-directed, internally controlled programs. And objectives must progress from the specific, concrete knowledge and receiving levels to higher order cognitive and affective objectives.

The eclectic model presented is a conception which has some theoretical and research support. However, the specific factors included, and the relationship among the factors, require greater specificity and research documentation. It has become evident that special educators need to develop a procedure by which disturbed children are introduced to intervention strategies that are appropriate to their problem and their developmental level. The conclusion stated by Morse, Cutler and Fink (1964) over 15 years ago is appropriate today: "There is no doubt that certain kinds of teachers fit better into certain kinds of programs, and that certain children are more ready to respond to one or another program types" (p. 129). This eclectic matching model has been presented as a procedure by which the best "fit" can be accomplished among a variety of strategies, teachers, objectives and disturbed children.

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AREA: Instructional Modifications
LEVEL: PIJS
SOURCE: Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1

INSTRUCTIONAL MODIFICATIONS

I. Adjust CONTENT (type, difficulty, amount) of materials.

1. Give a lesser amount than the rest of the class, i.e. fewer math problems, fewer pages to read, etc.

2. Break assignments down into very short tasks. Many of these children do well if they are provided with short assignments followed by immediate feedback. If the child concentrates well for three minutes, provide him with a series of three minute tasks with a brief break between each. If he can do only one math problem correctly, give him only one. After he has succeeded at that for several days, increase the number to two and so on. Often a classmate or older student can aid in the preparation of this.

3. Include in their assignments only that material which is absolutely necessary for them to learn.

4. Establish only a few modest goals for the mildly handicapped student. Develop with them the ways you will help them to reach those goals, the things they will have to do etc.

5. Keep the number of practice items on any skill to a minimum.

6. Change activities before the student's attention is gone; watch for early signs of attention loss.

7. Give students several alternatives for both obtaining and reporting information -- tapes, interviews, reading, making something, etc.

8. Have frequent, even if short, one-to-one conferences with students, helping them to restate what they are responsible for and assessing their progress towards completion of work.

II. Adjust PRESENTATION of material.

1. Check or underline textbook passages which contain the most important facts -- using markers to tell them where to start and stop an assignment.

2. Give them specific questions to guide their reading, and, if necessary, show them the exact paragraph where information can be found.

3. Make sure the student's desk is free from all material except that which he is working on.

4. Take up the student's work as soon as it is completed.

5. If the student is primarily an auditory learner, adjust presentation for him by:

   - giving him verbal as well as written directions.
   - taping important reading material for students to listen to as they read a passage.
   - putting assignment directions on tape so that students can replay them when needed.
   - giving oral rather than written tests.
   - having student drill on essential information using tape recorder, reciting information into recorder and playing it back.
   - using published audio tapes.
   - having student drill aloud or to another student.
   - dictating information to another student or a tape recorder.
   - having another student read important information to handicapped student.
   - having student repeat words aloud while writing them down on paper to keep from leaving out letters, words, or phrases.
   - having student close his eyes and try to hear words or information, repeating to himself in order to block out distractions.

6. If a student is primarily a visual learner, adjust presentation for him by:

   - having student use flash cards printed in bold bright colors.
   - having student close their eyes and try to visualize words or information in their heads, see things in their minds.
   - providing visual clues on chalkboard for all verbal directions.
   - helping students to write down notes and memos to themselves concerning important words, concepts, and ideas.

III. Adjust TIME requirements for completion.

1. Give the student longer time than other classmates to complete assignments.

2. Let the student work at reading or writing assignments for short periods of time, perhaps just ten or fifteen minutes depending on his ability to concentrate, followed by other types of activities for short periods of time.

3. Set up a specific schedule so that they know what to expect, being physically close to them if you have to change or vary their routine.

4. Keep work periods short, gradually lengthening them as the student begins to cope.

5. Alternate quiet and active times, having short periods of each. Make movements as purposeful as possible.

IV. Adjust PERFORMANCE or how the student displays mastery.

1. Give the student only one or a few questions at a time during testing.
2. Test orally when necessary.
3. Use the tape recorder to administer and record tests.
4. Use a variety of methods to allow the student to demonstrate knowledge-making, manipulating something, oral reporting, etc.

V. Adjust SPACE and GROUPING.

1. Permit the student to do his work in a quiet uncrowded corner of the room if he chooses to. However, do not isolate him against his will.
2. Place him close to the teacher for more immediate help when he needs it.
3. Place him next to a student who can help him when needed.
4. Separate him from students who are most likely to distract him.
5. Let him choose the area of the room where he can concentrate best.
6. Match the mildly handicapped student with a peer helper who can help him by:

   - making sure he understands directions or assignments
   - reading important directions and essential material to him.
   - drilling him orally on what he needs to know.
   - summarizing important textbook passages.
   - writing down dictated answers to tests and assignments.
   - working with him on joint assignments.
   - constructively criticizing work for him.

7. Formulate a small work group of three or four students. Hold all members of the group responsible for making certain that each group member completes assignments successfully.

AREA: Study Skills
LEVEL: J, S
SOURCE: Submitted by Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1

THE SQ3R STUDY/READING METHOD

Reading for a Purpose

Reading aimlessly through a book or article will not produce satisfactory learning results. In fact you will most likely find concentration difficult and comprehension limited. Before beginning any reading, you should determine your purpose or purposes for reading. Purpose gives direction which in turn provides the straightest path toward the goal. The comprehension of material read is directly related to the purpose established by the reader.

Two questions should be asked prior to reading: "Why am I reading this?" and "What do I hope to get out of it?" Below are some of the possible answers to these questions.

1. To get the main ideas or the author's trend of thought.
2. To get detailed information.
3. To answer specific questions.
4. To find out how to make or do something.
5. To observe the author's style.
6. To gain pleasure through the acquisition of ideas.
7. To evaluate the author's ideas and opinions.
8. To be able to apply knowledge gained through reading.

Survey Prior to Reading

After determining the "why and "what" of reading, several things can be done to enhance comprehension. Before you begin actual reading of a chapter or article, you should glance through the material rapidly to get a general impression of what is to come. This survey should include:

1. Check the length of the article, title, and section headings.
2. Read charts, diagrams, maps and pictures.
3. Read introductory or opening paragraph.
4. Read the last paragraph.
5. Read key words; capitalized, italicized, or in quotes.

Advantages of Question and Survey Process

Determining your purpose for reading and making a brief survey before reading has four important advantages:

1. It causes you to recall what you already know about the subject. This prepares you for reading by creating the proper "mental set".

2. It aids you in associating ideas gained through reading with ideas already known. This enhances comprehension and aids your ability to recall and use knowledge gained through reading.

3. It aids you to organize the knowledge or ideas read into a pattern of your making -- an organization you can see, recall, and use.

4. It promotes interest in the material and contributes to greater ease of concentration.

The SQR Study Reading Method

Many reading improvement formulas or methods have been developed based upon the processes of purpose and survey in reading. One such method is the SQR STUDY READING METHOD. This method is both practical and valuable in all non-fiction study type reading. As a student becomes proficient in using this method, he will find it: saves time, improves comprehension, aids recall, and improves concentration. Below is a description of the method.

1.	SURVEY	Read the title and chapter headings to see the major points to be developed. Read the first sentence and the last paragraph. Glance over the selection for key words. Study pictures, charts, maps, etc.
2.	QUESTION	Turn the first chapter heading into a question. If chapter headings are not given, turn the first sentence of the paragraph into a question. This will give you a definite purpose for reading, arouse your curiosity, and thus aid comprehension. It will also help you to associate ideas known with ideas read.
3.	READ	Read to answer your question. Make this an active search for the answer. You will note your eyes move rapidly over the material, noting the important points and rejecting the unimportant. You will find yourself becoming flexible in your reading. You will read those parts of the selection that seem easy at a fast rate. On some parts you will slow down because the ideas or vocabulary seem more complicated. You are gaining skill in "shifting gears" according to the difficulty of the material you are reading.
4.	RECITE	When you finish reading the selection recite the answer to your question without looking back at the book. Use your own words and think of examples from your own experience. Jot down key phrases (note taking) in outline form for later review and study. But be careful you are not rewriting the book. Be selective in note taking, jot down only key ideas and important details. If you own the book being read, underlining key points is very helpful.
5.	REPEAT	Repeat steps 2, 3, and 4 on each succeeding section. Turn the heading into a question, read to answer the question, recite the answer by jotting down key phrases in outline form. Read in this way until the lesson is completed.

6. REVIEW Look over your notes to get a bird's eye view of the major points and their relationship to each other. Check your memory of the content by reciting the major ideas under each heading. If you can do this you may be confident you know the material and have it organized in a pattern you can use.

AREA: Cross Age Tutoring
LEVEL: PIJ
SOURCE: Submitted by Mark Cannon, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1

CROSS AGE TUTORING

Objectives:

1. To provide help or skills reinforcement for the younger child.
2. To provide opportunity of the older child to give service and feel good about himself.

A few appropriate uses:

a. Teaching something requiring much drill.
Example: math, facts, spelling

b. Listening to younger child read.

c. Reading content assignments to child with reading problem.

d. Writing assignments or themes from dictation for child with spelling or writing problem.

e. Getting a disorganized child from one class to the next.

f. Eating lunch with a loner.

g. Helping with a library assignment for a poor reader.

h. Helping a young student organize his notebook and keep track of his assignments.

Comments: In some schools the tutors receive elective credit for this activity. In others this could be done in free periods or study halls.

A creative use is to recruit an older student with some problems himself to be the tutor. The usual response is "who me?" Teaches responsibility. To learn a skill well, teach it.

Procedure: This works well when two teachers -- say one at senior high with behavior problem student approaches teacher of younger student. Can be coordinated through counselor.

Peer tutoring: Same but in classrooms. Cooperative assignments.

AREA: Alternative Strategy
LEVEL: PIJS

FACULTY ADOPTION

Some students need an empathic someone to "touch bases with" on a daily basis. Typical students might be:

1. The "tough guy" who has a bad reputation and may need an advocate with teachers and administration.

2. The disorganized or immature child who is having trouble adjusting to new school.

3. The child who shows negative change in behavior.

4. Students who are in stress situations.

5. Withdrawn-shy children.

Procedure after identifying such a need: Ask student if there is someone/teacher at school he gets along with. See if that person will adopt him.

Responsibilities of adopter: Arrange a mutually convenient time to meet for ten or fifteen minutes each day. With student explore the problem. Help generate possible solutions. Follow-up.

Responsibilities of adoptee: Show up on time. Make serious effort.

AREA: Alternative Strategy
LEVEL: PIJS

MERCY DAY

Some students get so hopelessly behind that they are in a real quandry. Should they spend their time working on back assignments and come to class unprepared -- again or should they prepare for the next class and have the teacher ask for all the missing assignments? Many times these students cause behavior conflicts in class to cover their lack of preparation. MERCY DAY is one solution. On Mercy Day the student works on the next day's assignments or the next two days. He does not attend class. The work can be done in the room or office of the person who initiated the procedure. Basically the idea is to draw a line and say to the student, "we'll go from today for now".

Result: The next day he will be prepared and able to participate profitably in all classes. This works best with:

1. The student who "could do the work if he wanted to".

2. The student who wants to turn "over a new leaf".

Will not work with the student whose academic problems make it almost impossible to do the work unless the assignments are modified.

Procedure:

1. Teacher/person who initiates Mercy Day fills out sheet and takes it around to student's teachers. On separate sheet get list of essential assignments.

2. Arrange with student to bring materials for Mercy Day.

3. Set place.

4. Provide "limited" assistance.

5. Discuss day with student at end -- if he has extra time he can do one or two essential back assignments from each class.

6. Encourage teachers to accept essential back assignments at reasonable rate. Example: one each Monday, one each Thursday, so they don't interfere with future progress.

Caution: One generally would not use Mercy Day repeatedly with the same student.

Tape Recording Educational Materials for Secondary Handicapped Students

DONALD D. DESHLER
STEVEN GRAHAM

In recent years there has been a concerted effort on the part of advocacy groups, legislators, and the courts to demand that, to the maximum extent appropriate, handicapped learners be educated with students who are not handicapped. This concept, commonly referred to as the least restrictive alternative, has been embodied in Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act.

Although the humanistic goals of the act are admirable, the regulations of the law present special education and regular classroom teachers with an educational dilemma. In order to appropriately integrate secondary level mild and moderately handicapped learners into the mainstream of regular education, teachers need the availability of techniques that:

1. Are appropriate for the cognitive, physical, and sensory characteristics of handicapped learners.
2. Effectively present the curriculum.
3. Maximize learning experiences for the students.

While the availability of such techniques is limited, the tape recording of text material is a widely used procedure that meets the above requirements. Tape recorded reading assignments minimize students' reading deficits and thereby allow them to stay current with class assignments and to supplement the information presented in classroom lectures. Nonetheless, to ensure that students receive maximum benefits from taped materials, tapes must be prepared so that they minimize student learning through effective organization and presentation.

The purpose of this article is to describe six principles that underlie the effective use of tapes in delivering content material to handicapped learners in secondary schools.

WHY TAPE TEXT MATERIALS?

The development and use of tapes to deliver content materials provide teachers with a technique that compensates for the specific disabilities of a handicapped learner and the curriculum demands of the school. Many handicapped learners evidence skill deficits in the basic subject matter areas of reading, spelling, and writing. A handicapped youngster at the high school level may read in a word by word manner with a minimum or text organization. Although the student may approximate functional reading competency, these skills are seldom adequate for meeting the curriculum demands of secondary schools where, for the most part, content is presented in a lecture format and through reading assignments. The handicapped youngster who evidences minimum note taking and reading skills will have great difficulty in using these skills to comprehend, learn, and master new content material. These students require techniques that can circumvent or lessen the effect of their skill deficits.

The level of cognitive development of many secondary handicapped learners is often greater than suggested by their skill development level. A 10th grade student who cannot read *A Tale of Two Cities*, for example, may be able to comprehend the delicate interaction of characters and events if he or she sees the movie. This situation implies that for many mainstreamed handicapped learners at the secondary level, teachers may emphasize the acquisition of content which is more appropriate to their cognitive development level than their level of skill development. Clearly, many handicapped learners can comprehend and learn complex information if their skill deficits are avoided or their effects lessened. The development and use of taped materials provide teachers with a technique by which appropriate content material can be acquired while the youngsters' weaknesses are circumvented or minimized.

The effective use of tapes to deliver content materials to handicapped youngsters, however, requires much more than merely taping verbatim from a book or a lecture. Effective use of taped content material includes:

1. Decisions concerning what is to be taped.
2. Use of taped materials to teach text usage and study skills.

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*Before preparing or using recorded material with a particular student, an analysis of the student's listening capabilities should be conducted.

431

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3. Effective application of principles of learning.
4. Use of a marking system to aid students with coordinating tape recordings with text materials.
5. Careful consideration of the mechanics of recording.
6. Evaluation of the effectiveness of taped products and the learning that results from using them.

DECIDING WHAT SHOULD BE TAPED

For practical reasons, an entire textbook or chapter should *not* be taped, in most instances. First, it requires too much time to tape an entire text. Second, it is difficult to maintain the student's attention and motivation on texts that have been taped verbatim. Third, listening to a long text may require more time than students have available to them. Major instructional goals and objectives should be identified and key sections of the reading assignment should be designated for taping. Material not taped may be paraphrased or briefly outlined to aid students in seeing the context within which the taped section is presented.

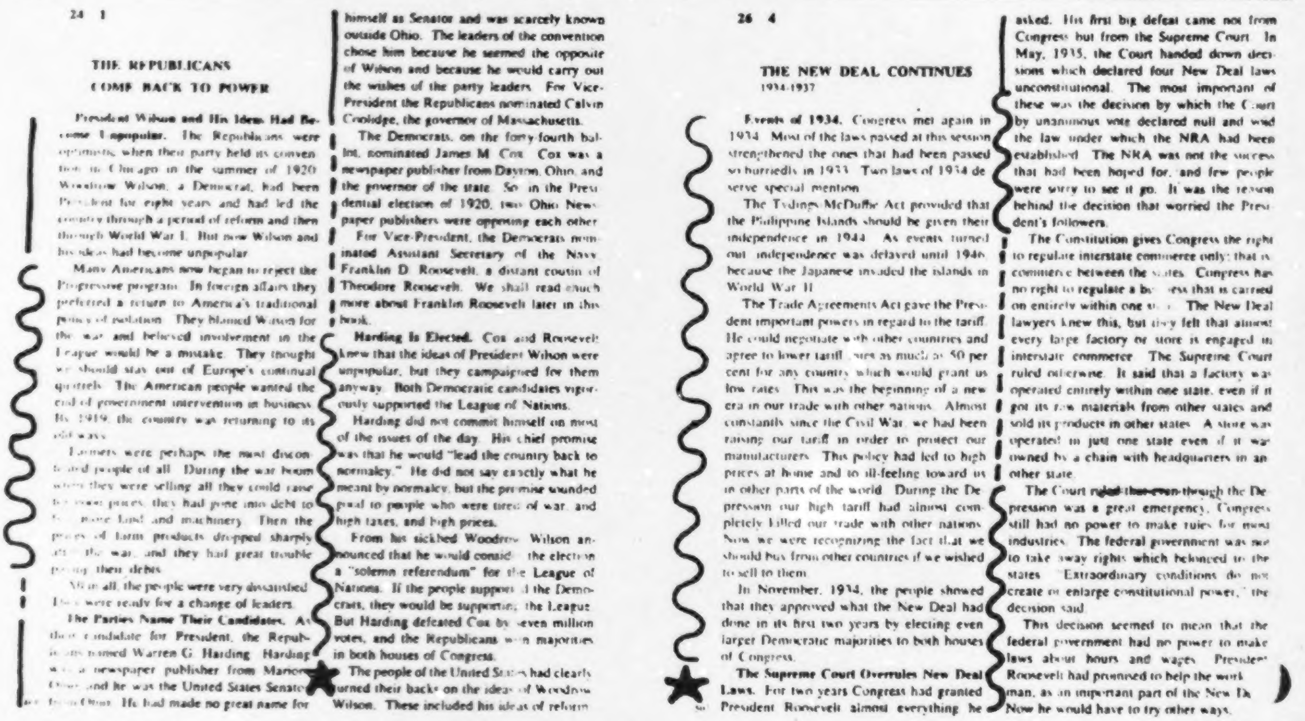
The decision concerning which content to tape should be made by the regular classroom teacher, who is the content expert. The regular classroom teacher is in the best position to specify which content is most critical as it relates to the major instructional objectives of a given unit of instruction.

Some exceptions apply to the guidelines of not taping everything. For example, short stories, poetry, or short literature selections must usually be taped in their entirety to maintain their effectiveness. Nevertheless, for most reading assignments in subjects such as science, social studies, health, etc. judicious decisions can be made regarding critical content to be presented on tape. Students can then be required to listen to the tape several times. Such review and concentrated exposure to key content usually promote retention and application of the material and are, therefore, more helpful than providing the students with a superficial and equal exposure to an entire reading assignment.

TEACHING TEXT USAGE AND STUDY SKILLS

A major reason for taping reading assignments is to give students an alternative means of acquiring the content. However, taped reading assignments can also be used advantageously to teach test usage and study skills. While taping a reading assignment, a teacher has an excellent opportunity to demonstrate how to differentiate between main and supportive material within a chapter; how to use illustrations, graphs, charts, etc., to aid comprehension; how to use questions at the end of a section or chapter to determine major points; and how to use chapter titles, section headings, etc., to skim a reading section for main ideas. Therefore, whenever students are listening to a tape recording of reading materials they should always have the textbook in front of them.

Using another method to teach text usage and study skills, the teacher may say on the tape, "Before reading Chapter 3 let's preview the chapter to get an overview of what it will be about." At this point the teacher can take the student through an overview of the chapter by requiring the student to follow along. Similar instruction can be provided at different points throughout the tape. For example, when discussing the content in a certain graph or table, the teacher may point out parenthetically to the



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THE REPUBLICANS
COME BACK TO POWER

President Wilson and His Ideas Had Become Unpopular. The Republicans were optimistic when their party held its convention in Chicago in the summer of 1920. Woodrow Wilson, a Democrat, had been President for eight years and had led the country through a period of reform and then through World War I. But now Wilson and his ideas had become unpopular.

Many Americans now began to reject the Progressive program. In foreign affairs they preferred a return to America's traditional policy of isolation. They blamed Wilson for the war and believed involvement in the League would be a mistake. They thought we should stay out of Europe's continual quarrels. The American people wanted the end of government intervention in business. By 1919, the country was returning to its old ways.

Farmers were perhaps the most discontented people of all. During the war boom when they were selling all they could raise for good prices, they had gone into debt to buy more land and machinery. Then the prices of farm products dropped sharply after the war, and they had great trouble paying their debts.

All in all, the people were very dissatisfied. They were ready for a change of leaders.

The Parties Name Their Candidates. As their candidate for President, the Republicans named Warren G. Harding. Harding was a newspaper publisher from Marion, Ohio, and he was the United States Senator from Ohio. He had made no great name for himself as Senator and was scarcely known outside Ohio. The leaders of the convention chose him because he seemed the opposite of Wilson and because he would carry out the wishes of the party leaders. For Vice-President the Republicans nominated Calvin Coolidge, the governor of Massachusetts.

The Democrats, on the forty-fourth ballot, nominated James M. Cox. Cox was a newspaper publisher from Dayton, Ohio, and the governor of the state. So in the Presidential election of 1920, two Ohio Newspaper publishers were opposing each other.

For Vice-President, the Democrats nominated Assistant Secretary of the Navy Franklin D. Roosevelt, a distant cousin of Theodore Roosevelt. We shall read much more about Franklin Roosevelt later in this book.

Harding Is Elected. Cox and Roosevelt knew that the ideas of President Wilson were unpopular, but they campaigned for them anyway. Both Democratic candidates vigorously supported the League of Nations.

Harding did not commit himself on most of the issues of the day. His chief promise was that he would "lead the country back to normalcy." He did not say exactly what he meant by normalcy, but the promise sounded good to people who were tired of war, and high taxes, and high prices.

From his sickbed Woodrow Wilson announced that he would consider the election a "solemn referendum" for the League of Nations. If the people supported the Democrats, they would be supporting the League. But Harding defeated Cox by seven million votes, and the Republicans won majorities in both houses of Congress.

The people of the United States had clearly turned their backs on the ideas of Woodrow Wilson. These included his ideas of reform

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THE NEW DEAL CONTINUES
1934-1937

Events of 1934. Congress met again in 1934. Most of the laws passed at this session strengthened the ones that had been passed so hurriedly in 1933. Two laws of 1934 deserve special mention.

The Tydings-McDuffie Act provided that the Philippine Islands should be given their independence in 1944. As events turned out, independence was delayed until 1946, because the Japanese invaded the islands in World War II.

The Trade Agreements Act gave the President important powers in regard to the tariff. He could negotiate with other countries and agree to lower tariff rates as much as 50 per cent for any country which would grant us low rates. This was the beginning of a new era in our trade with other nations. Almost constantly since the Civil War, we had been raising our tariff in order to protect our manufacturers. This policy had led to high prices at home and to ill-feeling toward us in other parts of the world. During the Depression our high tariff had almost completely killed our trade with other nations. Now we were recognizing the fact that we should buy from other countries if we wished to sell to them.

In November, 1934, the people showed that they approved what the New Deal had done in its first two years by electing even larger Democratic majorities to both houses of Congress.

The Supreme Court Overrules New Deal Laws. For two years Congress had granted President Roosevelt almost everything he asked. His first big defeat came not from Congress but from the Supreme Court. In May, 1935, the Court handed down decisions which declared four New Deal laws unconstitutional. The most important of these was the decision by which the Court by unanimous vote declared null and void the law under which the NRA had been established. The NRA was not the success that had been hoped for, and few people were sorry to see it go. It was the reason behind the decision that worried the President's followers.

The Constitution gives Congress the right to regulate interstate commerce only; that is, commerce between the states. Congress has no right to regulate a business that is carried on entirely within one state. The New Deal lawyers knew this, but they felt that almost every large factory or store is engaged in interstate commerce. The Supreme Court ruled otherwise. It said that a factory was operated entirely within one state, even if it got its raw materials from other states and sold its products in other states. A store was operated in just one state even if it was owned by a chain with headquarters in another state.

The Court ruled that even though the Depression was a great emergency, Congress still had no power to make rules for most industries. The federal government was not to take away rights which belonged to the states. "Extraordinary conditions do not create or enlarge constitutional power," the decision said.

This decision seemed to mean that the federal government had no power to make laws about hours and wages. President Roosevelt had promised to help the workman, as an important part of the New De
Now he would have to try other ways.

A system of marking the reading material must be developed to help the student follow the tape recording. The samples are from Bernard, L., Brande, R., & Sharkey, D. America and its people. New York: W.H. Sadlier, 1968.

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student how effective a particular table is in presenting the ideas contained in three pages of text. While not lengthy in nature, such hints can be highly effective in improving text usage and study skills that will aid the student in becoming a more effective and independent learner.

USING PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING

The preparation of effective taped materials requires the inclusion of activities and techniques that foster motivation, comprehension, and learning. Similar to the development of a reading series or a set of programed materials, the development of taped materials requires the careful selection and judicious use of instructional techniques that follow principles of learning. In preparing tapes, it is important that teachers select materials that are interesting and motivating to students. The content selected should be moderately familiar to the student and also novel enough to be stimulating. Curiosity and motivation can be enhanced if an initial survey of the content material, along with preparatory questions designed to stimulate inquisitiveness, are provided at the beginning of the tape. Furthermore, interest can be sustained by involving the learner in a variety of activities.

Comprehension of the tape content can be facilitated by the expeditious use of summaries, paraphrases, analogies, explanations, and examples dispersed strategically throughout the tape. An initial survey of the content material will provide the learner with a structure to which specific facts or ideas can be related. Also, it is often helpful to provide concrete explanations of abstract terms. The appropriate use of these techniques will aid students in relating the content of the tape to what they already know and thus facilitate comprehension.

However, comprehension is only one aspect of instruction. In addition to understanding what is on the tape, the learner will be expected to remember important facts and relationships. In order to foster this type of learning, the tape should be prepared so that it:

1. Is well organized.
2. Provides a variety of activities.
3. Highlights or cues important points.
4. Contains a variety of questions designed to facilitate recall and critical analyses.
5. Repeats key concepts or ideas.
6. Accommodates the assimilation and/or practice of new concepts or ideas.
7. Provides immediate and delayed feedback.

USING A MARKING SYSTEM

Given that a reading assignment is not taped in its entirety and that several planned activities are dispersed throughout the tape, it is necessary to develop a system for marking the textbook used by the student while listening to the recording. Without such a marking system it is very easy for the student to get confused and lost. While the marking system need not be elaborate, it must be consistent so the student will know what to expect and do each time a certain mark appears in the text. As the tape is prepared the teacher should mark the written material that will correspond with it. The following represents an example of a simple marking system. (~) a wavy line denotes material that will be paraphrased. Thus, a wavy line can be drawn in the margin beside material that will be paraphrased on the tape. The student will then know when to listen and will not try to follow all of the prescribed text. (····) a dotted line indicates material that will be omitted altogether on the tape. (☆) a star indicates that the tape must be stopped and that the student is to complete an activity or sample problem related to the taped material. (—) a solid line drawn next to text selections designates material that will be read verbatim on the tape. Depending on the nature of the reading assignment and related activities, marking systems can be expanded or modified to meet the prescribed needs of the student. The sole purpose of a marking system is to assist the student in coordinating the selected information presented on tape with the material appearing in the text and accompanying exercises.

GOOD RECORDING MECHANICS

Once the content material is organized and ready to be recorded, it is important that the tape be prepared in a setting that is relatively free of distraction. The quality of the tape can be seriously impaired by frequent disruptions and excessive background noises. It is important that the recorded voice be fluent and audible and that appropriate pauses are made at punctuation marks, etc. Speaking rate should be between 120 to 175 words per minute. Upon completion of a recording, the teacher must listen carefully to the tape to ensure that it is understandable and that the content is correct.

Similarly, when using a tape, the student should be familiar with the mechanics of operating the tape recorder (to prevent tapes from being erased) and with the specific directions for the use of a particular tape. The setting in which the tape is used should be well ventilated, properly lighted, and free from excessive distractions and noises. The teacher should provide appropriate reinforcement and feedback.

Once a tape is prepared, proper care is essential. Tapes and tape recorders should be stored in a suitable place in an organized manner. Occasionally, each tape should be monitored by the teacher. If a tape becomes defective or difficult to understand, it should be replaced.

EVALUATION

To prepare and use tape recordings of reading assignments is time consuming for both teachers and students. Consequently, if it is found that valuable preparation and instructional time is not being effectively used, changes must be made. The quality of the prepared tape recordings and the performance of the students using the recordings should be constantly monitored and evaluated. As with any teaching material or technique, tape recordings of reading assignments are *not* appropriate or effective with all students. Therefore, they should only be used with those students who show gains and benefits through their application. For those students who do benefit from their use, recorded tapes should be prepared and evaluated in such a manner as to promote the acquisition of key content materials from classes into which they have been mainstreamed and to aid them in improving their study and text usage skills. The six steps outlined in this article have been designed with those considerations in mind.

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Terminal behavior: Concept used by experts in the field of behavior modification. Terminal behavior defines the educational goals for the as a whole or for individual students, and defines these goals in objec behavioral terms. Rather than using what they consider to be vaguely st goals, like "understanding", the behaviorists insist that the goals desc specific behaviors that will result when the objective is attained. For example, students can be said to have learned how to multiply when they recite the multiplication table with no errors.

Token system: A system of reinforcement used by proponents of behavior modification, in which tokens of varying point values are awarded to stu for fulfilling specific behavioral objectives. The tokens (conditioned reinforcers) may be different colored pieces of cardboard or poker chips the student may earn in order to achieve some desired prize or privilege system is said to have two main advantages: (1) it maintains a high ba rate of desirable response, and (2) it teaches delayed gratification.

AREA: Professional Development
SOURCE: Submitted by Patricia Wells, ED Consultant, Keystone AEA #1
PROCEDURE: For use as a guide in professional growth, teacher may set personal goals to improve in different areas.

CHECKLIST

Positive Control of Student Behavior Conducive to Learning

____ teacher ignores inappropriate, attention-getting behaviors.

____ teacher uses a variety of meaningful verbal reinforcers.

____ teacher maintains good eye contact when rewarding the child.

____ teacher uses proximity to control behavior.

____ teacher has established class rules and the children understand basically agree to them.

____ teacher does not begin until all children are attending.

____ teacher touches, smiles, nods, winks, etc. to reward.

____ teacher uses specific, sequential steps in giving directions.

____ teacher requires that the students demonstrate understanding be proceeding.

____ teacher recognizes and rewards attempts or partially met answer

____ teacher is genuinely enthusiastic.

____ teacher uses voice to imply intent.

____ teacher moves around the room during her presentations.

____ teacher uses cues to regain individual attention.

____ teacher modifies tasks to reflect student needs.

____ teacher gives rewards appropriately.

____ teacher says "thank you", "please", etc. when talking to the students.

____ teacher calls children by first name.

____ teacher supports child. Example: "I know how you feel."

____ teacher uses intentional mistakes, suspense, drama, "out of ordinary" events to maintain interest.

____ teacher describes behavior when rewarding.

AREA: Logical Consequences
LEVEL: PLIS
SOURCE: John Platt and Helen Millman
PROCEDURE: Discipline and management techniques are most successful wh
based upon logical consequences. The following outline pro
guidelines for implementing this approach.

PRINCIPALS OF LOGICAL CONSEQUENCES IN A DEMOCRATIC SETTING

Prepared by John Platt with help from Helen Millman.

1. Natural and logical consequences -- alternative to autocratic punish

2. Consequences are logically connected to specific behavior and specif total situation.

3. Respect is maintained for rights and dignity of both child and adult

4. Where situation is recurring one, such as eating problems, the consequences can be discussed in a calm moment with the child once.

5. There is always another opportunity given to the child. This does n mean he is protected from consequences by a second chance. The next a situation arises, he has another chance to choose his behavior.

6. Action and not words.

7. Understand that the goal is important. It is a general rule of thumb not try to apply "logical consequences" in a power struggle.

8. The implicit attitude of the adult, which may or may not be expresse casually and briefly, is that of mild regret that the child has chos action leading to these consequences but that next time he will prob choose another behavior more in accord with situational realities. The adult's purpose has no punitive undertones, nor is there an implication of superiority. The emotions of the adult are not negat hostility, anger, unhappiness, depression, feelings of being abused, disappointment.

9. Only one behavior is handled at any one time. No other issues are d with. For example, if the child's reaction is to whine, cry, to sh anger, this is his right. This is not the time to try to correct th behavior. If it interferes with the consequences, it may be dealt w but only on that basis.

10. After the interaction, the adult evaluates his own purpose, behavior emotions.

Some common pitfalls on the part of an adult:

1. Feeling sorry for the child -- this may teach him to feel sorry for himself.

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